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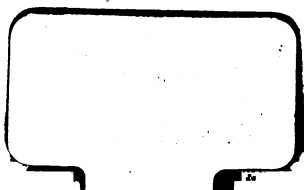
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ESSAYS AND ESSAY WRITING  
FOR PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS



# ESSAYS AND ESSAY WRITING FOR PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS

*Arthur William* BY

A. W. READY, B.A.

ARMY AND UNIVERSITY TUTOR, FORMERLY

SCHOLAR OF WADHAM COLLEGE, OXFORD

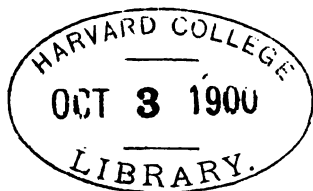
AUTHOR OF "CLASSIFIED LATIN  
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LONDON  
GEORGE BELL & SONS  
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## SCHEME OF THE BOOK

THE BOOK is divided into three Parts.

Part I. contains rules and directions for beginners.

Part II. contains twelve complete Essays, preceded by an analysis and sketch of each, and followed by notes and explanations. The last three Essays, which are marked with an asterisk, are for advanced pupils.

Part III. contains articles for advanced pupils.

An Appendix contains a list of subjects set for Woolwich and Sandhurst.

The author desires to call special attention to Part II., and to the use of the analysis and the sketch, as directed in § 18, in connection with each Essay. This is the practical part of the work, and it is on this method that the author has, for ten years past, been preparing pupils for Army and other Examinations, with a constant average of high marks in the most unpromising cases.

22 ROYAL YORK CRESCENT,  
CLIFTON, BRISTOL.



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# ESSAYS AND ESSAY WRITING

## PART I

### § 1. TO THE READER

THE chief object of the following rules is to protect you from mistakes. Caesar frequently breaks the laws of the Latin Primer. But you must not. This book is not intended for an embryo Carlyle or John Bright. Genius is above rules ; but you presumably are not a genius, because you seek assistance such as you will find here. This book ought to do two things for you. It ought to give you a certain number of ideas, and to teach you to express them in plain English.

### § 2. GENERAL RULES

1. Aim at simplicity.
2. Cut your sentences short.
3. A sentence is the expression of one idea.
4. Every sentence must contain a verb.
5. Before you begin to write, map out your subject into paragraphs.
6. A paragraph contains a division of the subject.
7. Write the exact title of the Essay at the top of your first page. Keep looking at this title, and ask yourself constantly if you are writing to the point.
8. On no account be funny or flippant.
9. Do not try to write in a high-flown style.

A

10. Make a rough copy, of course.
11. When you have finished your fair copy, read it through. Put in any words you have left out, and carefully examine your stops.

### § 3. TECHNICAL RULES

12. Leave a margin about an inch wide, on the left side.
13. The first line of a paragraph should begin half-an-inch to the right of the margin. The second and following lines begin at the margin.

*memorable vicissitudes of fortune.*

*Warren, the son of Pynaston, was born on the sixth of December 1732. His mother died a few days later, and he was left dependent on his distressed grandfather. The child was . . .*

14. Never use brackets.
15. So far as possible, avoid dividing a word at the end of a line. Unless it is a long word, put it, by preference, bodily in the next line.
16. Quoted words, whether of a writer or a speaker, must be put between two pairs of inverted commas. Do not forget the second pair.
17. The initial letter of a title should be a capital.

18. Consequently, the principal words in the title of the Essay have capitals. The retention of these capitals in the body of the Essay is a matter of discretion which will be illustrated later.
19. Words borrowed from foreign languages are printed in italics. In your manuscript, italics are represented by a line drawn underneath the word.
20. With regard to the names of ships, usage varies. Some writers use italics, some use inverted commas, some make no distinction between the name of a ship and that of a person. You should follow Bishop Creighton and use italics.
21. Never use abbreviations or symbols, such as etc., &, e.g., i.e., in an Essay, which is a formal composition : they are only admissible in notes.
22. Write numbers in full, except in the case of the number of a year, or a series of exact statistics.

*Examples* :—"Warren, the son of Pynaston, was born on the sixth of December 1732."

"The British Regular Army consists of 31 regiments of Cavalry with 18,894 officers and men ; 119 batteries of Field and Horse Artillery and 93 companies of Garrison Artillery with 37,624 officers and men ; 62 companies of Royal Engineers with 7932 officers and men ; 149 battalions of Infantry with 147,417 officers and men."  
— *Whitaker's Almanac*.

## COMMENTS ON THE RULES

### § 4. THE SHORT SENTENCE

(Rules 1 to 4)

The short sentence is an essential feature of good modern English. The English language, from its wealth of phrase, its multitude of synonyms, its magazine of words acquired and constantly in process of acquisition from innumerable sources, is an extraordinarily powerful implement for the



exact and accurate expression of every shade of meaning, and, philosophy excepted, of every kind of idea. But, like the character of the people for whom it serves as interpreter, it is essentially plain, simple and straightforward. For reasons that cannot be entered upon here, it does not lend itself to the elaborate and involved sentences which are found in Latin or Greek or German. You can express almost anything in English, and you can express it usually to the most delicate nicety; but you must be concise. The first thing, then, that a young writer must learn is to use short sentences. It is not natural to him to use them. To say a thing in a few words and leave it to stand by itself implies a self-confidence which, from the nature of the case, it is impossible that he should possess at first, but which he must make up his mind to acquire.

The short sentence was brought to perfection by Macaulay, and was used by him relentlessly. If a thing could be said in three words, he said it in three words. If a thing could be better said in a half-dozen of short sentences than in a single long and elaborately balanced sentence, no consideration of elegance, no regard for rhythm, no fear of tautology, stopped him from using the half-dozen.

In qualifying yourself to write sound English, you should know not only what to imitate but also what to avoid. What to avoid is Livy. I select Livy because few of you for whom this book is intended are likely to read our older English authors who build their style on Classical models; whereas most of you, probably, have read some Livy. You have been bewildered by endless parentheses and by artificial antitheses, and you have floundered in a fog of phrases, scarcely able to extricate any meaning for yourselves and still less able to present any meaning, through the medium of another language, to others. So long as Livy's Latin is read as Latin only, and no effort is made to convert it into English, the difficulty is not acute, because his Ablative Absolute clauses and Subjunctive clauses with *quum* have somewhat the effect to the mind of a string of separate short sentences. Directly, however, you try to convert Livy into English, you get into hopeless confusion. If you want a good specimen of what an English sentence ought not to be, translate a typical

sentence of Livy literally. You will find that you have said a great deal. But you will have said it as badly as it can be said; and the effect on the reader's mind will be cloudy and unconvincing.

For the human mind is limited. You can not exact too much from a man's attention and comprehension at a given moment. You must give him what his mind can hold and no more. One idea at a time is as much as any one can manage to express or to understand; and if you try for more you will defeat your own object. That is what we mean when we define a sentence to be the expression of one idea.

A great orator once gave the following advice to a young speaker who was about to make his first appearance in the House of Commons: "Say what you have to say: don't quote Latin: and sit down." It is good advice for a young writer, too: "Say what you have to say: don't quote Latin: and stop."

## § 5. RELATIVE AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

It may, however, be urged that it is not always easy to keep one's sentences short. That is quite true. Beginners frequently find themselves, they know not how or why, struggling blindly in the midst of a wild waste of words, usually through the unwary introduction of some relative or adverbial clause which takes them insensibly off their legs and sweeps them out of their depth. The words "who" and "when" should be marked dangerous. Roughly speaking, you will do well to use the demonstrative instead of the relative, at all events at first, except in the very simplest cases. Turn the sentence in such a way that "he" comes instead of "who," and "then" instead of "when," and so on.

Here is an example of a relative clause:

"The prisoner, who was an old man, was unable to endure the fatigue of the march."

This is safe enough, because the relative clause is short and simple. Even thus, the idea is quite as well expressed if you say:

"The prisoner was an old man and he was unable to endure the fatigue of the march."

Suppose, however, that the relative clause is full of matter.

"The prisoner, who was an old man, broken down by the hardships which he had undergone and suffering from an incurable disease contracted during years of painful confinement, was unable to endure the fatigue of the march."

There is nothing exactly wrong about this sentence as it stands, but you would do well to turn it thus:

"The prisoner was an old man; he was broken down by the hardships which he had undergone; he was suffering from an incurable disease contracted during years of painful confinement; and he was unable to endure the fatigue of the march."

Take, next, an example of an adverbial clause.

"When the news of this fresh disaster reached the beleaguered garrison, and there was no longer hope of effective resistance, the general had no alternative but to surrender."

This is safe enough, because the adverbial clause is short and simple. Even thus, the idea is quite as well expressed if you say:

"The news of this fresh disaster reached the beleaguered garrison; there was no longer hope of effective resistance; and the general had no alternative but to surrender."

Suppose, however, that the adverbial clause is a complicated one.

"When the news of this fresh disaster, the details of which were corrected or confirmed by successive messengers, reached the beleaguered garrison, and when, as the expected diversion on the part of the allies was not forthcoming and food and water were becoming scarce, the inhabitants of the town were reduced to the last extremity of suffering, there being no longer hope of effective resistance, the general had no alternative but to surrender."

This sentence, which might possibly be successful in Latin, is far too full of matter to be clear in English. Turn it thus:

"The news of this fresh disaster reached the beleaguered garrison. Its details were corrected or confirmed by successive messengers. The expected diversion on the part of the allies was not forthcoming. Food and water were becoming scarce.

The inhabitants of the town were reduced to the last extremity of suffering. There was no longer hope of effective resistance; and the general, therefore, had no alternative but to surrender."

This is plain unembarrassed English; and this is all, at present, that you are concerned to produce. Later on it will be shown how a series of relative or adverbial clauses can be handled with brilliant cumulative effect. This development must not be anticipated at present. What you have to aim at in the first instance is the production of a clear and steady flame, not coruscations of fireworks.

## § 6. THE PARAGRAPH

(Rules 5 and 6)

The unit of the Essay is the paragraph. The unit of the paragraph is the sentence. Just as the sentence contains one idea, so the paragraph contains one set of kindred ideas, that is, one division of the Essay. Each of the main divisions of the subject will have its separate paragraph. So also will each of the most important sub-divisions.

Practically it is better to have too many paragraphs than too few. One of the objects of the writer is to attract and engage the attention of the reader. A heavy unbroken mass of matter is repulsive to the eye and suggestive of dulness and verbosity. The reader dreads that the subject has not been properly articulated or has been handled without discrimination, and he is likely to be right. Paragraphs are an indication that the writer has, presumably, put what he has to say into an orderly form.

In all probability, if you find yourself with a paragraph of more than three-quarters of a page in length, you have mixed up two or three things which ought to have been kept separate. In practice, you had better make a point of having the commencement of at least one paragraph on every page.

Rule 5 directs you to map out your subject into paragraphs. In using this book, you should try, first of all, to do this for yourself. You should then fall back upon the assistance given in the Analysis and the Sketch of the subject, according to the

directions contained in § 18. You are certain to find that you have overlooked several of the divisions of the subject ; which, however, will seem perfectly natural and obvious directly they are presented to your attention. Some of these principal paragraphs may admit of sub-division. For instance, in the Essay upon Discipline, a particular form of punishment which attained a special prominence in the Navy is properly allotted a paragraph to itself.

This preliminary division of the subject into paragraphs is the most important and difficult part of the whole matter. It is the framework of the fabric. Unless the parts are properly discriminated, you cannot present a coherent and intelligible whole. You will run one thing into another ; you will leave out some things and needlessly repeat others ; you will create only muddle and confusion ; and you will get bad marks.

### § 7. WRITING TO THE POINT

#### (Rule 7)

Nothing is easier than to wander from the question. Very often, for instance, you make use of some epithet which insidiously introduces a side issue. You employ some word whose connotation, to use a phrase of logic, runs away with you. It has been well said that the adjective is the enemy of the noun. Some new notion is implied in the adjective, and you insensibly slip off on a false scent. It is an exceedingly subtle snare, often very difficult to detect ; but you can guard against this and others like it by unswerving obedience to Rule 7.

### § 8. FLIPPANCY

#### (Rule 8)

I recollect one of the most learned and popular of Oxford lecturers, when he had elucidated a passage of Herodotus with a certain graceful humour in which he excelled, looking up from his manuscript as the ripple of appreciative laughter died away, and sedately observing : "I do not advise you, gentlemen, to repeat that joke in your examination ; because

what passes for wit in a learned professor might be taken for flippancy in an examinee." There is a place for everything; but an Essay of the kind which you are called upon to compose is not the place for humour. You must not give the examiner cause to suppose that you are chaffing him. He is, for the time being, your superior; and it can never be proper or in good taste to chaff your superior.

Avoid levity. Treat your subject in a decorous spirit. Pay your subject the compliment of taking it seriously. On the other hand, do not moralise or preach sermons: a trick to which schoolboys are addicted. Give your subject its proper weight; and write about it soberly and straightforwardly in a business-like manner.

## § 9. HIGH-FLOWN WRITING

### (Rule 9)

In writing an Essay, you have to use language somewhat more formal and dignified than that which you are in the habit of using in ordinary life. You must cease to be conversational, and you must cease to use slang, of which a great part of your conversation is probably made up. In an Essay, you must use the best language at your command. Do not, however, strain this too far. Remember that it is not the absolutely best language that you can hope to use, but the best at your command. You must have control over it.

Do not indulge in rhetorical questions or exclamations. Do not say: "Does it not seem strange that . . ." or "How strange it seems that . . ." but say simply "It seems strange that. . ." Do not use words of which you do not understand the meaning. Do not aspire to gorgeous metaphor, elaborate antithesis or complicated simile; do not ape Gibbon or Ruskin or Johnson; but try to discuss your subject in a sensible, simple and manly way, as if you were explaining it to a dispassionate, cool-headed, clear-minded man of the world some ten years your senior.

## § 10. ROUGH COPY

## (Rule 11)

No good prose, as a rule, is ever produced without being written several times over and corrected again and again. You may write your rough copy with freedom, but you must criticise and correct it with the utmost care. The standard at which you are to aim for the present is simply to be free from faults.

It is a high standard enough; for "faultless" would be a handsome word to apply to the work of any man.

## § 11. FINAL CORRECTIONS

## (Rule 11)

If you write an ordinary letter and read it through, as you ought always to do, before you fasten it up, you will almost invariably find that words or stops have been left out or require correction. Much more is this the case with a composition of greater length than a letter and aiming at a higher standard of completeness. Read the final copy of your Essay through with a hostile mind; and make sure that it can defy criticism.

## § 12. PUNCTUATION

## (Rule 11)

You will best acquire a knowledge of the rules for punctuation, such as they are, by noticing how the stops are managed in the Essays contained in the second part of this book. A complete set of formal rules is often misleading, because rules cannot in all cases be strictly applied. Certain cases, however, are tolerably clear.

The full stop requires no explanation. Do not, however, forget it altogether.

The comma is the commonest of the stops. It obeys certain rules, but in some cases the decision seems almost to depend upon the eye. In series, its use for you is clear.

"He was to be assailed at once by Austria, Prussia, Saxony, Sweden and the Germanic body."

A comma is placed after each item of a series, but the word "and" takes the place of the comma between the last item but one and the last: a usage almost peculiar to the English language.

A comma is generally to be placed, also, after the adverbial clause which often begins a sentence.

"On the day after his accession to the throne, Frederick disbanded his father's regiment of giants."

Adverbial clauses in the middle of a sentence are generally placed between commas. The reason for this is that they are virtually parenthetical: that is, they are apart from the construction of the main sentence, and the commas act as a sort of modified bracket.

"The authorities of the town, since no intimation had reached them of any effort for their relief, were at their wits' end."

Another tolerably well-ascertained use of the comma is in the case of ordinary apposition.

"Napoleon, the conqueror of Austria, the conqueror of Prussia, the conqueror of Europe, could not conquer Winter."

These three uses of the comma, firstly in series, secondly in marking off adverbial clauses, thirdly in appositions, are well-established; although there is scarcely a general rule that can be laid down about stops which is not violated by first-rate authors or their printers in particular instances. You will do well to note the practice of good writers.

The semi-colon is a sort of weak full stop. Its most useful employment is to connect a string of small sentences which combine to express one somewhat unwieldy idea.

"The victory of Rosbach was, in a military point of view, less honourable than that of Leuthen; for it was gained over an incapable general and a disorganised army; but the moral effect which it produced was immense."

It is obvious that the three sentences which compose this aggregate might equally well have been written separately.

"The victory of Rosbach was, in a military point of view, less honourable than that of Leuthen. It was gained over an incapable general and a disorganised army. But the moral effect which it produced was immense."



The three sentences are, however, not worth separating ; for the whole idea sought to be conveyed is merely that the victory of Rosbach, for given reasons, produced an immense moral effect. The question of the use of the full stop or the semi-colon in a string of short sentences must in every case be to some extent a matter of taste and judgment.

There are other uses of the semi-colon in which it seems to serve as a strengthened comma, as for instance in a string of subject or object clauses.

"He admitted that he had misunderstood the Right Honourable gentleman's motives ; that he had not given him credit for an unbiassed or impartial mind ; that he had conceived him to be actuated rather by personal ambition than by unselfish desire for the welfare of his country ; that . . ."

Take also the following instance from Ruskin :

"I should think the reader cannot but feel the kind of harmony there is in this composition ; the entire purpose of the painter to give us the impression of wild, yet gentle, country life, monotonous as the succession of the noiseless waves, patient and enduring as the rocks ; but peaceful and full of health and quiet hope, and sanctified by the pure mountain air and baptismal dew of heaven, falling softly between days of toil and nights of innocence."

Take also this quotation from the same author :

"Turner's sense of beauty was perfect ; deeper, therefore, far than Byron's ; only that of Keats and Tennyson being comparable with it."

Like the colon also, the semi-colon is sometimes used in unwieldy appositions.

The two chief uses of the semi-colon for you at this stage are the two first mentioned.

Of the less important stops, the colon is often used in introducing a quotation ; or, as an alternative to the comma, in cases of apposition where the apposition clause is of considerable length ; or sometimes instead of the semi-colon in a string. The exclamation stop follows an exclamation, and the question stop follows a question, and you had better have as little as possible to do with either, unless, of course, they occur in some quotation which you introduce.

The hyphen is largely employed by modern writers,

especially in such phrases as "well-bred," "ill-conducted," and the like. The usage is not above criticism; but it is convenient and assists the reader's eye. On the whole, when you are in doubt whether to use a hyphen or not, you should use it.

The possessive Genitive is represented in English by an apostrophe and an *s* placed after the noun when it is of the singular number, as in "the general's charger." If the noun, though singular, ends in a very strongly-marked sibilant sound, the additional *s* is discarded, and the apostrophe is placed to the right of the word, as in "John Huss' doctrine." This is also the usage with plurals ending in *s*, as in "the Muses' votary." If a plural does not end in *s*, it follows the rule for singular words, as in "men's time." Formerly it was considered necessary with all singular words ending in *s* to discard the *s* of the possessive; but the usage is obsolete, and the ear now determines its presence or its omission. Thus we say "James's book" and "Morris's Grammar," but "Moses' leadership." It should be noted that "its" "ours" "theirs" "yours" have no apostrophe.

The above rules are tolerably safe. But the best set of rules for stops that ever was framed could not meet all cases, and must inevitably lead you astray if you adhere rigidly and unintelligently to them.

### § 13. VOCABULARY

All the laws in the world for the use of words are of no avail unless you have words to use. According to the prospectus of the new dictionary lately issued by the *Times* there are nearly three hundred thousand words in our language; but it has been said that the average man gets comfortably through life with the use of only seven or eight hundred. You probably find that your vocabulary is exceedingly scanty. It is only what we must expect. A vocabulary is only to be acquired by reading, an ample vocabulary by much reading. English boys do not read much. This is not the place to discuss the deficiencies of our national methods of education, but

it is a simple fact that when an English boy has an hour to spare, he does not read a book, he plays a game. It is undeniable that in our educational system the study of English finds little or no place. The result is inevitable. When the time comes for a lad to be confronted with a public examination, he discovers that he has an utterly inadequate supply of words with which either to translate his French or Latin authors, or to express his own thoughts in his own tongue. Rules 5 and 6 direct you to put your thoughts into order. You now require a copious medium for their expression.

To obtain a vocabulary you must read. In advising you how to read, it must be understood that I pass no judgment upon the writers whom I recommend or reject except so far as the present limited purpose is concerned. At your present stage I cannot, for instance, advise you to read Ruskin, and I must beg you to absolutely eschew Carlyle. I am no blind devotee of Macaulay, but I think he is the best of our authors for you to study minutely at first, both for vocabulary and for style. Master the Essay on Clive. You will find it not in the least dry: quite as interesting as many historical novels. Study some one paragraph: then close the book and try to reproduce that paragraph: then open the book and compare your version with the original. Read the story of the Siege of Derry in Chapter Twelve of the Second Volume of the History. Read the Third Chapter of the First Volume: with its description of old English life, of the towns, the inns, the roads, the highwaymen, the sea captains, the gentlemen of the Life Guards, the manners and customs of our ancestors in the seventeenth century.

These selections and such as these you should study minutely. Above all, read widely. Read your daily paper. Read novels. The prose of Mr Robert Louis Stevenson is admirable: "Treasure Island" is not only a delightful story, it is a thoroughly well-written book. Mr Rider Haggard's novels will be of assistance to you. Mr Rudyard Kipling is a genius; but his language is his own, and it is occasionally not quite that of the examination room. Such works as those of Mr Stanley Weyman and Mr Henty

and Mr Anthony Hope will help you. I am not going to make a list. It would be absurd here to do more than indicate a line for you to follow; your own tastes and inclinations must do the rest.

Of course you will say you have no time to read. Everyone says that. Now that statement is nearly but not quite accurate. No person is so completely engrossed in the business of life, whether he be a Prime Minister or an intending examinee, as not to have odd moments. Utilise these. Always have on hand a book of light reading; it is as necessary for the refreshment of your brain as is outdoor exercise for that of your body. Always read a light book for a few minutes before going to bed; it will take your mind off your work and you will sleep the better. Read while you are waiting for the dinner-gong, or during any such odd moments. And I must add one thing. It is not my business to scold, but if you do not read English, whatever poor excuse there may be for the omission, you can never write it.

#### § 14. SUBJECT-MATTER

With the exception of "Unseen," English Essay is the most difficult thing that a tutor has to teach. The pupil has only to say that he knows nothing about the subject set, and the unfortunate instructor is nonplussed. The combination of no ideas wherewith to start and no words wherewith to continue is indeed cheerful. The way the difficulty is solved at school is simple enough. The subject having been set to the class, one of the superior minds consults the encyclopaedia in the school library. A little judicious variation of the precise phraseology employed in that useful work gives a graceful semblance of originality to the composition: the merits of which are respectfully endorsed by adaptations on the part of the other participants in the task. The master is too thankful to escape the anguish of a fiasco to inquire over-curiously into the source of the phenomenal grasp of the subject generally evinced in the papers, and so everyone is satisfied.

When, however, the scene is changed to a public examination room, a difficulty presents itself. It is one of the laws of examinations that candidates may not carry books for their assistance in their pockets, and encyclopaedias unfortunately are no exceptions to this rule. It is necessary, therefore, not only, as I have recommended in the preceding article, to acquire a vocabulary for the expression of your ideas, but also to acquire a few ideas for your vocabulary to express.

You will get a few ideas from the Essays in Part II. of this work; but you must try to get some for yourself from other sources. Every one would think that you ought to have a few notions to start with about games and field sports, but experience shows that the essays which are produced on these subjects are of the poorest possible description, chiefly because you have never been accustomed to regard such subjects as things to be thought about, but have always taken them for granted. You must get your general ideas from various sources, such as the conversation and instruction of your elders and superiors, the leading articles of a good London daily paper, and above all from your own general reading. By all means, use the encyclopaedia or any similar book of reference when you want to ascertain facts. For instance, in the Essay "*Si vis pacem, para bellum*" the statistics are taken from *Whitaker's Almanac*, which is a great storehouse of facts. But such books supply facts only: they do not think for you: you must think for yourself. They afford food for your mind; your mind must digest it.

You should read books of travel and short biographies. A large class of Essays, as you will perceive later, cannot be approached without a knowledge of the facts connected with the British Empire. You should read a little pamphlet called "Through the British Empire in Ten Minutes," by Colonel Sir Howard Vincent, C.B. You should read a book upon London. I strongly advise you also to read some such book as Geikie's "Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography," which gives and explains the ordinary facts and laws of Nature in a popular and generally intelligible form.

## § 15. HISTORY

There is one particular department of knowledge which is essential to ease in essay writing. That is history. It does not much matter whether it is Roman or Greek or English history. I am sorry to say that Greek history is so little learnt or known that, in the accompanying Essays, which are above all things practical, I have been obliged almost wholly to discard it, and to draw my illustrations and comparisons from other sources. It is for illustration and comparison that you require history. Some subjects, Duelling for instance, can only be treated on an historic method. But in almost all Essays you require history. In dealing with all abstract subjects, such as Discipline, you will at best flounder through not more than a couple of vague paragraphs before you get on to the firm ground of concrete instances, after which your progress will be easy. Get therefore some knowledge of history, from whatever source you will : from regular history manuals, or historical novels, or books like "Deeds that Won the Empire" and Captain Mahan's "Influence of Sea Power," or how you please. There is no reading more useful for your present purpose. For an account of the progress of the Nineteenth Century, which enters into the subject-matter of a large class of Essays, Justin McCarthy's "History of our Times" or his concise "Epoch of Reform" will be found to answer the purpose.

## § 16. HANDWRITING

It matters not how brilliant your ideas may be, how copious your vocabulary, how wide your reading, how admirable the selection of your illustrations, if your handwriting is bad. All your labour will be thrown away if the examiner cannot read what you have written. He can only give you credit for what you tell him ; and if you tell him nothing it is impossible for him to give you marks. An examiner is an honourable and impartial gentleman whose only anxiety is to do you justice. But he cannot do you justice if you will not let him. It is impossible to over-emphasise this truth. Moreover, an

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examiner is usually, from the nature of things, a man whose eyesight has been tried by much study; and he often looks over papers at night. It is more than folly, it is sheer suicide, not to meet him half-way, and to put everything before him in the form which he will find least difficult to comprehend. This is true as regards your papers in any and every subject; but it is ten times more cogently true in the case of an Essay, which is set for the express purpose of testing you upon this very point of intelligibility.

I have no hesitation in saying that anyone can teach himself to write decently in a month. You want no copy-book and no writing-master. Writing-masters are apt to be like dancing-masters, who teach you a step you cannot use in a ball-room. I have taught myself to write, and I have made hundreds of others teach themselves to write, by the application of one simple law: A letter is well made if you cannot possibly take it for anything else. Practise making every letter of the alphabet separately until you are satisfied with your method of forming it. All directions for holding a pen and so forth are of very little use. Bring everything you write to the above test, write slowly, and in a month you will have effected the necessary improvement. Every time you write badly, you injure your handwriting. Every time you write well, you improve it. It is a good plan to practise drawing your letters with a pencil or, what is virtually the same thing, with a stylograph. Speed will come with practice. Loop every letter that ought to be looped, especially "e." Print your capitals if you cannot trust yourself to make them plainly otherwise. Make an "n" differently from a "u." Take care that the letters "r" and "s" are well finished. Let your writing, generally speaking, be large, round and upright, but not sloping backwards.

You cannot write well unless you have a good pen. The pens of the present day are superb. They are of the highest excellence and unlimited variety. Take some trouble about the matter, try different specimens, fix upon the pen that suits you best, and keep to it. Always carry your own penholder in your pocket. A first-rate fountain-pen, such as those manufactured by Messrs Mabie Todd or De la Rue, will not only be a continual source of comfort and pleasure to you in

## DIRECTIONS FOR USE OF THE ESSAYS 19

writing, but in an examination will accelerate your speed by quite twenty per cent.

### § 17. SPELLING

As your handwriting improves, so will your spelling improve. There is no doubt that the eye is the court of appeal in the matter of spelling. It is the look of the word which tells you whether you are right or wrong. If your writing is unfixed or indistinct, the same word will not look alike two days running, and you will have no standard to go by. An acquaintance with Latin and Greek may help you with some of the less commonly used words in the language; but though your Classical knowledge may assist you to a correct rendering of "philanthropy," it will not guard against a certain characteristic and indispensable article of masculine attire masquerading, as I have witnessed more than once, in the curious disguise of "britches." With some persons, bad spelling is a sort of disease; and it is the commonest words that give them most trouble. Good writing is the first step towards cure. Write the word, both slowly and quickly, on a slip of paper, and remember that, in spelling, second thoughts are not usually the best. Your first attempt is, on the whole, most likely to be correct; but you should write down the alternatives and see which looks right. In an examination, if you are still doubtful, omit that word and use another instead.

### § 18. DIRECTIONS FOR THE USE OF THE ESSAYS

- I. Write down the Title of the Essay. Consider it carefully, and make rough notes of any ideas which you possess upon the subject.
- II. Articulate the subject into paragraphs.
- III. Failing, or partially failing in I. and II., consult the Analysis. Endeavour to fill in for yourself the paragraphs therein given.



## 20      ESSAYS AND ESSAY WRITING

- IV.    Then consult the Sketch, where the subject-matter of each separate paragraph is supplied or indicated.
- V.    Write the Essay.
- VI.    Read the Essay given in the book, and compare your own production with it.
- VII.   Do not allow the explanation of any allusion in the text or of any word or phrase to escape you. If the notes are inadequate, consult the dictionary or the encyclopaedia or your instructor.

## PART II

### ANALYSIS

#### I. PEACE HATH HER VICTORIES NO LESS RENOWNED THAN WAR

- § 1. Victories of Peace contrasted with those of War.
- § 2. Nineteenth Century the age of such Victories.
- § 3. Victory over Forces of Nature.  
Inventor and Engineer.
- § 4. Victory over Disease.  
Doctor and Sanitary Reformer.
- § 5. Victory over Civil Tyranny and Class Oppression.  
Political Reformer.
- § 6. Victory over Ignorance and Immorality.  
Social Reformer.
- § 7. Durability of these Victories.

### SKETCH

#### PEACE HATH HER VICTORIES NO LESS RENOWNED THAN WAR

- § 1. The Victories of Peace are gained over
  - (a) Forces of Nature: by Inventor and Engineer.
  - (b) Disease: by Doctor and Sanitary Reformer.
  - (c) Civil Tyranny and Class Oppression: by Political Reformer.
  - (d) Ignorance and Immorality: by Social Reformer.

They are bloodless conquests. The world is the richer, not the poorer for them: as in the case of land reclaimed from the sea.

§ 2. The Nineteenth Century is the special period of such Victories.

§ 3. (a) Victory over Forces of Nature.

Electricity: for propulsion, light, bells, telephone. Telegraph: annihilates space and time. Steam for locomotion by land and sea. Photography. Phonograph.

§ 4. (b) Victory over Disease.

Doctor: vaccination conquers small-pox: chloroform conquers pain.

Sanitary Reformer: drainage, ventilation, cleanliness. Check on typhoid and similar epidemics.

§ 5. (c) Victory over Civil Tyranny and Class Oppression.

Not peaceful in all countries: but peaceful in ours. Free speech: practically every man has vote: no religious disabilities: order maintained: freedom of Press.

§ 6. (d) Victory over Ignorance and Immorality.

Free education: reform of workhouses, asylums: abolition of Debtors' Prisons: public opinion condemns drunkenness and duelling: literature purified. Lower classes improved in decency and civilisation.

§ 7. Lasting character of these Victories.

## ANALYSIS

### II. DUELLING

§ 1. Single Combat in Early History.

§ 2. Single Combat in Feudal Times.

§ 3. Duelling in sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries.

- § 4. So late as early nineteenth century, it was in full force : even among statesmen.
- § 5. Growth of feeling in England against Duelling.
- § 6. Feeble survival of Duelling on the Continent.
- § 7. Modern American Duel : rough but deadly : contrasted with ceremonious affairs of honour of the Georgian Period.
- § 8. Practice of Duelling indefensible : arguments for and against.

## SKETCH

## DUELLING

- § 1. Single Combat in Early History.
  - e.g.* (a) Rome, Horatii and Curiatii.
  - (b) Old Testament, David and Goliath.
- § 2. Single Combat in Feudal Times.
  - Its importance in Chivalry. Tournaments. Its legal aspect. Ordeal by battle used to decide law-suits, *e.g.* the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk before Richard II.
- § 3. Duelling in sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries.
  - Its wide-spread prevalence. A recognised social institution. Terrible episodes, *e.g.* the Duke of Hamilton and Lord Mohun.
- § 4. So late as early nineteenth century it was in full force : even among statesmen, *e.g.* Castlereagh and Canning : O'Connell and Sir Robert Peel : the Duke of Wellington and Lord Winchilsea.
- § 5. Growth of feeling in England against Duelling. "Black Bottle" Duel. Common-sense disgusted at such episodes. Association of noblemen and officers formed against it. Influence of Prince Consort.

- § 6. Feeble survival of Duelling on the Continent : chiefly among self-advertising French journalists and German students. Occasionally, however, a deadly affair takes place.
- § 7. Modern American Duel : rough but deadly : contrasted with ceremonious affairs of honour of Georgian Period.
- § 8. The practice of Duelling indefensible.  
 Arguments for the practice :—  
 (a) promoted courtesy.  
 (b) adversaries often became friends afterwards.  
 (c) more honourable way of settling a quarrel than by law.
- Reply :—  
 (a) no security that the man in the right will win.  
 (b) death too severe a remedy for the causes, often ridiculous, which occasioned Duels. Derision a more appropriate punishment.

## ANALYSIS

### III. "SI VIS PACEM, PARA BELLUM"

- § 1. Translation of the Title.
- § 2. From Civilisation, we should expect Peace : not, as we see, general preparation for War.

#### Statistics of Peace Establishments of European Powers

- § 3. Armies.  
 Numbers of men.  
 Annual cost.
- § 4. Navies.  
 Numbers of men.  
 Annual cost.

- § 5. Totals of Expenditure on Armies and Navies.
- § 6. "Such is the tax which Europe pays for Peace."
- § 7. Necessary however. "To be weak is to invite aggression."
- § 8. Paramount necessity of Defence for the British Empire in particular. Reasons.
- § 9. How we ought to be permanently prepared.
- § 10. How we ought to be prepared for the last emergency.
- § 11. We are not a combative people. But we must protect ourselves.

## SKETCH

"SI VIS PACEM, PARA BELLUM"

- § 1. Translation of the Title.
- § 2. From Civilisation, we should expect Peace: not, as is the case, the perpetual menace of War, by which alone Peace is maintained.

**Statistics of this condition of armed equilibrium**

- § 3. Armies of Great Powers.
  - § 4. Navies of Great Powers.
  - § 5. Totals of Expenditure on Armies and Navies.
- (*N.B.*—These statistics are for Peace Establishments).
- § 3. Armies of Great Powers.
    - Numbers of men—i. Russia, 800,000.
    - ii. Germany, 580,000.
    - iii. France, 570,000.
    - iv. Italy, 250,000.
    - v. Austria, 325,000.
    - vi. Great Britain, 225,000.
- Total, in round numbers, three millions.

The Maintenance of these three millions is all dead loss :  
(See Essay No. VIII., § 2.)

- i. Soldier is kept by workers,
- and ii. prevented from working himself.
- iii. Expense of War Material.

Annual cost.

Army of i. Germany, 27 millions, English money.

ii. France, 25       "       "       "

iii. Great Britain, 18       "       "       "

Total for these three Powers alone is 70 millions.

§ 4. Navies of Great Powers.

i. Germany : 23,000 men.	Annual Cost	4½ millions.
ii. France : 46,000 men.	"       "	10½ "
iii. Great Britain : 94,000 men	"       "	22 "
Total : 163,000 men.	Total :	37 millions.

§ 5. Totals of Expenditure on Armies and Navies combined.  
Germany, France and Great Britain together spend  
over 100 millions.

Guessing Russia at 36 millions, we get

Total for four Powers : 145 millions.

§ 6. Remark : "Such is the tax which Europe pays for  
peace."

§ 7. Yet it is necessary. "To be weak is to invite aggression" ;  
*e.g.* Poland.

§ 8. Paramount necessity of Defence for the British Empire  
in particular : which is

- i. unlike Russia, scattered.
- ii. fed from without.
- and iii. possessed of gigantic commerce.

§ 9. How we ought to be permanently prepared.

- i. Navy.
- ii. Army.
  - (a) Regulars.
  - (b) Auxiliary Forces.

- § 10. How we ought to be prepared for the last emergency.  
Unlimited stores of weapons for the whole people, who, in case of need, would sink their differences, as they did against the Armada and Napoleon, and rise unanimously to arms.
- § 11. We are not a combative people: but, although we admire a Peace Conference, we cannot afford to disarm. We are friendless. All other nations hate and envy us. We must protect ourselves.

## ANALYSIS

## IV. TRAVELLING TO-DAY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO

- § 1. Introductory comment: suggested by the phrase "Seventy Years." This is the gap between Travelling by Coach and Travelling by Rail.
- § 2. Travelling by Coach: not to be judged by modern revival of Coaching.  
Its disadvantages.  
Disadvantage (a). Expense: which was aggravated by time consumed, involving hotel charges.
- § 3. Disadvantage (b). Discomfort of inside of Coach.
- § 4. Disadvantage (c). Waste of Time.
- § 5. All advantages, including (d) Safety, are on the side of the Railway.  
Picture of up-to-date Train.
- § 6. Travelling by Sea: its speed: its luxury.
- § 7. Old Coaching Inns.  
Contrast with Railway Hotels.
- § 8. Extension of Travelling. Danger incidental to this habit.



- § 9. Revival of Highway Travelling.  
The Cycle : its limitations.  
Motor-vehicles.

### SKETCH

#### TRAVELLING TO-DAY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO

- § 1. The days of Travelling by Coach are separated from those of Travelling by Rail by a distance of seventy years ; and are therefore scarcely within the recollection of any man living. But literature and pictures give us ample knowledge of the period.
- § 2. Travelling by Coach.  
Its demerits.  
(a) Expense. High fares : aggravated by hotel expenses involved by length of time on the road.
- § 3. (b) Discomfort of the Inside : as in the modern "Diligence." Stuffy atmosphere : cramp : fellow-passengers too much in evidence.
- § 4. (c) Loss of Time. Ten miles an hour as against modern fifty.
- § 5. (d) Chance of Accident. Railways safer than Coaches. Picture of up-to-date Train. Its many conveniences.
- § 6. Travelling by Sea.  
Time : a fortnight to India as against three or six months.  
A week to America. Luxuries of modern Liners : size, furniture, food, electric light.
- § 7. Old Coaching Inns.  
Their popularity : comfort : farms and fishponds : vast stables : numerous dependants. Snug comfort of old Inn contrasted with cold formality of modern Railway Hotel.

- § 8. Extension of Travelling: both in area and number of Travellers. Foreign tours, *e.g.* Switzerland, Norway. Tourist agencies. Change of scene essential to holiday. Craving for change degenerates into mere restlessness: as in the case of the Americans.
- § 9. Revival of the Use of the Road.  
Cycle, motor-car. Pleasures of Road-travelling. Limitations of the Cycle. If the Motor-car be successfully developed, we may revert to travelling by road, if not for business, at all events for pleasure.

## ANALYSIS

## V. MILITARY MUSIC

- § 1. Military Music is not merely a means of recreation. It has also practical uses.
- § 2. It enables the men to keep step; and maintains their spirits.
- § 3. The Bugle: in the field.  
The Cavalry Trumpet: its effect on the horses.  
The Bugle in barracks.
- § 4. The Drum.
- § 5. Music keeps the men out of mischief when off duty; and enlivens military life in many ways.
- § 6. Regimental bands popularise the Army with the public.
- § 7. Regimental tunes: *esprit de corps*. Historic incidents: Lucknow: Dargai: departure of troops for the Transvaal.

- § 8. Just as Regimental Tunes promote *esprit de corps*, so National Airs stimulate patriotism.
- i. The "*Marseillaise*."
  - ii. Cromwell's troops and their hymns.
  - iii. The song of the Southerners in the American Civil War.
- § 9. The English National Anthem.

## SKETCH

### MILITARY MUSIC

- § 1. Generally speaking, music is merely an art contributing to recreation. Military music has not only this function, but also practical utility.
- § 2. It enables the men to keep step, especially over rough ground or grass. It also cheers them up when tired.
- § 3. The bugle. In the field, it issues orders which can be heard beyond the range of the human voice. Especially useful for skirmishers. The Cavalry trumpet: obeyed by horses as well as men. The bugle in barracks = a clock.
- § 4. The drum: its martial associations. The muffled drum at military funerals.
- § 5. Music beguiles hours of idleness. The regimental band enlivens guest-nights and dances, or plays as a compliment to another regiment.
- § 6. Regimental bands popularise the Service, by playing at entertainments throughout the country, or by their fine appearance at the head of their regiments.

- § 7. Regimental tunes: stimulate *esprit de corps*. Historic incidents: "The Campbells are Coming" at the Relief of Lucknow by Sir Colin Campbell: the "Cock of the North" by the wounded piper of the Gordon Highlanders at Dargai: "Soldiers of the Queen" and "Auld Lang Syne" at the departure of the troops for the Transvaal.
- § 8. What regimental tunes do on a small scale, national airs do on a large scale. The former promote *esprit de corps*: the latter, patriotism.
- i. The "*Marseillaise*," in the French Revolution Wars.
  - ii. Cromwell's Ironsides and their psalms.
  - iii. "My Maryland," the song of the Confederate Southern States in the American Civil War.
- § 9. Our English National Anthem: calm and stately: appropriate to our national character and our vast empire.

## ANALYSIS

## VI. GREAT RIVERS

- § 1. In five aspects, rivers are important.
- § 2. First aspect: Industrial.
- § 3. Second aspect: Commercial.
- § 4. Illustration of Commercial importance in modern times: *e.g.* the Congo.
- § 5. Ports at the mouths of rivers.
- § 6. Third aspect: Military.
- § 7. Fourth aspect: Strategic.
- § 8. Fifth aspect: Sentimental.

## SKETCH

## GREAT RIVERS

## § 1. Introductory.

Rivers important in five aspects—(1) Industrial, (2) Commercial, (3) Military, (4) Strategic, (5) Sentimental. Preliminary illustrations.

## § 2. First aspect: Industrial. Water for agriculture. Water-power for mills.

§ 3. Second aspect: Commercial. A natural highway and medium of communication. In modern times partially superseded by railways, *e.g.* Birmingham has no river but easy and speedy communication with all ports by rail.§ 4. Examination of importance of rivers at the present day as illustrated in opening up a new State, *e.g.* the Congo.§ 5. Advantages to a port of situation on a river, *e.g.* New Orleans at the mouth of the long and navigable Mississippi: Liverpool on the short, broad estuary of the Mersey, with railways taking the place of a navigable river for communication inland.

## § 6. Third aspect: Military. An invaluable frontier, especially if supplemented by mountains. Contrast Roumania, hemmed in by rivers and mountains, with France, whose N.-E. frontier is artificial: whence the desire of French statesmen to extend their boundaries to the Rhine.

§ 7. Fourth aspect: Strategic. Natural lines of fortification, *e.g.* the Modder and the Tugela. Of vital importance in studying a campaign. The Rhine and the Danube figure predominantly in European military history.

- § 8. Fifth aspect: Sentimental. Associated with love of country, *e.g.* the Germans and the Rhine; the English and "Father" Thames; the Egyptians and "Old" Nile; Horatius' invocation of "Father Tiber, to whom the Romans pray"; and Naaman's pride in the rivers of Damascus. In the East, associated with religion, *e.g.* the Ganges and the devotees of Benares.

## ANALYSIS

## VII. DISCIPLINE

- § 1. Necessary for success in all concerted action.
- § 2. Agencies for maintaining it. Punishments. Social Position in the Services.
- § 3. Character of an Ideal Disciplinarian.
- § 4. Value in the Army.
- § 5. Value in Civil Life.
- § 6. Value in the Navy.
- § 7. The "Cat."
- § 8. Conspicuous British examples.  
i. The *Birkenhead*.
- § 9. ii. The *Camperdown*.

## SKETCH

## DISCIPLINE

- § 1. Discipline and a central authority necessary for success and comfort in all concerted action, on account of the inequality of character and ability of those engaged in it: not only in serious matters like the management of a man-of-war or a regiment, but even in trifles like games.

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- § 2. How is it to be enforced? Not entirely by punishments. In the Services, social position was formerly of great assistance: not so great now, owing to spread of leveling influences, *e.g.* education. For the future, must depend on skill and courage.
- § 3. An ideal Disciplinarian should be clear (i.) of head, and (ii.) of speech: (iii.) prompt in decision: (iv.) just. He must have (v.), personality (vi.), self-control. Authority is increased by its exercise.
- § 4. Value in the Army: *e.g.* Omdurman, Plassey, Assaye: and all our wars with savages.
- § 5. Value in Civil Life: *e.g.* Mounted police, theatre scene-shifters, performers in a band.
- § 6. Value in the Navy: greater even than in the Army, because a mistake in executing an order may affect the safety of the ship and the whole of her crew collectively.
- § 7. The old method of enforcing Naval discipline by flogging: its evil results. Contrast the modern Bluejacket.
- § 8. Conspicuous British examples: the *Birkenhead*.
- § 9. Another notable example: the *Camperdown*. Discipline carried to an extreme.

## ANALYSIS

### VIII. THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF COMPULSORY AS CONTRASTED WITH VOLUNTARY MILITARY SERVICE

- § 1. Compulsory system.  
Chief Advantage: Large Army.
- § 2. Disadvantage: (a) Cost.

§ 3. Disadvantage : (b) Useless without perfect Organisation.

§ 4. Disadvantage : (c) Tendency to Militarism, and oblivion of true national interests.

Thus a large Army may be not a sign of strength but a cause of weakness.

§ 5. Voluntary System.

Advantages : It does not interfere with

(a) Division of Labour

or (b) Personal Liberty.

Also (c) Choice more likely to make a man efficient than compulsion.

§ 6. Disadvantage : (a) Army is small  
and (b) dear for its size.

§ 7. Short Service System.

The Reserve. Doubts about the Reserve. Satisfactory answers. Its efficiency.

§ 8. The Volunteer Force. Untried as yet.

Value of Volunteers in Transvaal War.

A Volunteer as good as a French Conscript.

§ 9. Voluntary System suitable to English-speaking peoples.

§ 10. Conscription perfect in theory. Voluntary System good enough in practice.

Untrammelled national life will protect national interests.

## SKETCH

### THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF COMPULSORY AS CONTRASTED WITH VOLUNTARY MILITARY SERVICE

§ 1. Compulsory System.

Chief advantage : large Army : composed of whole Nation. Add good organisation, and you have ideal fighting-machine.



§ 2. Disadvantage (*a*)

Cost : which is three-fold :—

- i. Soldier is kept by workers, and
- ii. Prevented from working, himself.
- iii. Expense of War Material for the large Army.

§ 3. Disadvantage (*b*)

The big conscription-Army is useless without perfect organisation, *e.g.* French in Franco-Prussian War, 1870-71.

§ 4. Disadvantage (*c*)

Tendency to (i.) Militarism  
and therefore to (ii.) Oblivion of true National interests.  
A large Army, if it drains the Nation's strength is really  
a source of weakness.

## § 5. Voluntary System.

Chief advantages : it does not interfere with

- i. Division of Labour.
- ii. Liberty of the Subject.

A man is a soldier from choice. But therefore

## § 6. Disadvantages.

Army is (*a*) small and

(*b*) dear for its size : because it is merely a trade  
competing with other trades for members.

## § 7. Our Short Service System.

The Reserve. Objections, before it was tested.

- i. Few men would return to the Colours.
- ii. Those that returned would have become inefficient.

Objections refuted by Transvaal War.

English better than Continental Reservist.

## § 8. Our Volunteer Force.

Its peculiar constitution. Value uncertain, because  
untried, but probably great, as shown by Transvaal War.  
Their intelligence and spirit. An English Volunteer is  
at least as good as a French Conscript.

- § 9. Voluntary System suitable to English and Americans, who highly value their personal freedom. Only a mild form of Conscription could ever be tolerated in England.
- § 10. Voluntary System, though theoretically imperfect, has worked well in practice, *e.g.* America *v.* Spain, and England *v.* South African Republics.
- But it is only possible in countries such as England which are virtually free from fear of invasion, and can therefore do with a small Army.
- In our case, the strong unshackled national life will protect the national interests.

## ANALYSIS

## IX. THE JUBILEE OF 1897

- § 1. Other long reigns in English History.
- § 2. Their unfortunate character.
- § 3. The longest reign in European History: its melancholy close.
- § 4. Contrast the reign of Victoria. Expansion of the Empire by land.
- § 5. Retention of the Sovereignty of the Sea.
- § 6. Progress of the Army.
- § 7. Progress in Science.
- § 8. The Jubilee procession: its various elements. Contrast with a Roman Triumph.

## SKETCH

THE JUBILEE OF 1897

- § 1. Other long reigns in English History: Henry III.: Edward III.: George III.
- § 2. Most long reigns have been disastrous:  
e.g. Henry III.: power usurped by De Montfort and the Barons.  
Edward III.: conquests in France almost all lost.  
George III.: loss of American colonies: insanity: closes amid convulsions of Napoleonic era.
- § 3. Reign of Louis XIV. of France: seventy-two years.  
After Blenheim, nothing but disaster: insurrection of starving subjects. Pathetic picture of the old man trying to instruct his great-grandson.
- § 4. Contrast reign of Victoria. Record on Land:—  
i. Empress of India.  
ii. Consolidation of Dominion of Canada.  
iii. Development of Australia.  
iv. Acquisition of territory in Africa.  
v. Enormous colonial expansion.
- § 5. Empire of the Sea.  
The review at Spithead showed us that we maintain our sea power. Development of the Navy in this reign. Steam (*i.e.* speed): armour: no rigging.
- § 6. Development of the Army. Repeating rifles: machine guns: big guns: abolition of purchase: short service: reserve: volunteers.
- § 7. Scientific progress. Social and sanitary improvement. (See Essay: "Peace hath her Victories no less renowned than War." In this paragraph, you want the subject-matter of that Essay, or the most striking features of it, in a compressed form.)

§ 8. The significance of the Jubilee procession.

The only empire in history comparable to that of Victoria is that of Rome. But we have subjects where Rome had slaves.

## ANALYSIS

### X. THE INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND CLIMATE UPON NATIONAL CHARACTER

§ 1. (Introductory. May be omitted.)

National Character must obviously be affected by Geographical Position and by Climate.

The effects are permanent.

#### **Geographical Position**

§ 2. The Islander, *i.e.* the Sailor.

§ 3. The Sailor develops into an Explorer, a Trader, a Colonist.

§ 4. The Dweller Inland or on Plains.

§ 5. The question of Defence, as it appears to the Islander : and to the Dweller Inland or on Plains.

§ 6. The Mountaineer.

#### **Climate**

§ 7. Influence of Unsettled (*e.g.* British) Climate.  
Promotes activity.

§ 8. Influence of Warm or Settled (*e.g.* South of Europe) Climate.  
Promotes the Arts.

## SKETCH

INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND CLIMATE ON  
NATIONAL CHARACTER

## § 1. (Introductory. To be omitted by a novice.)

Such an influence must exist. A sea-faring life must obviously produce a character different from that produced by a life spent inland. A life spent among mountains must produce a character different from that produced by a life spent on plains. A hot or settled climate must produce a character different from that produced by a cold or unsettled climate. These different characters are transmitted from generation to generation ; and remain operative long after the nations have become highly civilised.

**Geographical Position**

We take three types in order, viz. :—

- i. The Islander, *i.e.* the Sailor.
- ii. The Dweller Inland or on Plains : considering these two types as virtually identical.
- iii. The Mountaineer.

## § 2. Character of the Islander.

(That is, of the Sailor : but not Stoker)

- (a) patient.
- (b) prompt and alert.
- (c) persevering.
- (d) practical.
- (e) fearless.

(Give your reason for each statement : thus, "The sailor must be patient ; for he is dealing with elements beyond human power to coerce or control. He must be prompt and alert ; for . . . ")

Hence he also becomes confident and self-reliant.

## § 3. These qualities lead to others. "Habituated to difficulty and danger, he comes to love the excitement of them."

He becomes

(a) an explorer  
and therefore (b) a trader  
and (c) a colonist.  
*e.g.* Greeks, English.

§ 4. Character of Dweller Inland and on Plains.

Rather featureless and negative.

Plodding, regular: not adventurous. Monotonous industry his best road to success. Narrow-minded, through being engrossed in routine.

§ 5. Question of National Defence.

To the Islander, his Navy: to the Dweller Inland, his Army, is of supreme importance.

Hence tendency of the latter to militarism and the regulation of affairs generally according to military ideas.

§ 6. Character of the Mountaineer.

(a) Courage: required in going up a mountain.

(b) Caution: required in coming down.

(c) Independence: caused by solitude.

(d) Frugality: owing to difficulty of getting food.

(e) Seriousness: due to solemn surroundings.

(f) Patriotism: mountains have a personality, and men centre their feelings on them.

Hence attachment of mountain peoples to their old institutions, *e.g.* survival of the Welsh language, and of the Highland dress: though the latter was proscribed by George II.

### Climate

- § 7. A trying unsettled Climate is conducive to hardiness and energy. This is especially shown in the case of the English, whose changeable climate hardens them for conquest and colonisation in hot and cold climates alike. (Use the Particular for the General. See Part III., § 2.)

- § 8. A warm and genial climate is conducive to idleness, and the vices that spring therefrom :  
 but on the other hand to the arts, *e.g.*  
 (a) Painting (Italy, Spain).  
 (b) Sculpture (Greece).  
 (c) Music (Italy).

On the whole, an uncomfortable climate promotes activity and enterprise : a comfortable one is favourable to artistic development.

## ANALYSIS

### XI. VALUE OF PHYSIQUE IN MODERN LIFE

- § 1. Genesis of the prevalent impression of a decline in the value of physique in modern life.
- § 2. The impression is true, to an extent, of muscular strength : but not true of power of endurance.
- § 3. In warfare, muscular strength is less important than skill, so far as actual fighting goes,
- § 4. but more important than ever in countless other operations of war.
- § 5. Power of endurance in warfare : the Forced March.
- § 6. Muscular strength in civil life : occupations where it is essential.
- § 7. Power of endurance in civil life : skilled artisans : city men : the professional classes : competitive examinations.
- § 8. Power of endurance in other sedentary occupations.
- § 9. Reason why necessity of this kind of physique escapes us.

- § 10. Value of physique shown by the physical qualifications exacted from candidates for the Army and other competitive examinations.
- § 11. Summary of the relative importance of Mind, Muscular Strength, and Power of Endurance.

## SKETCH

## VALUE OF PHYSIQUE IN MODERN LIFE

- § 1. General impression of a decline in the value of physique, due to multiplication of labour-saving appliances, facilities afforded by inventions, and to spectacle of numbers of persons gaining a living without need of muscular power.
- § 2. The impression is true to a slight extent of one part of physique : quite untrue of the other : partly true with regard to muscular strength : quite the reverse with regard to power of endurance.
- § 3. In warfare, muscular strength is not needed by the modern as it was by the mediaeval soldier with his heavy arms. Skill and mobility are the modern requisites.
- § 4. But apart from the actual fighting, it is needed now as much as ever : *e.g.* for getting heavy guns on to hills or extricating foundered vehicles.
- § 5. Power of endurance in warfare. The Forced March : what it means. Lord Roberts' march from Cabul to Candahar.
- § 6. In civil life, muscular strength is not needed by merchants, shopkeepers, professional men, or skilled artisans. But it is needed as much as ever by colliers, navvies, crews of fishing-smacks, porters and police, the muscular strength of the last-named having a definite moral value in the preservation of order.



- § 7. Power of endurance in civil life: urgently needed by those who live in great cities, who have to work for long periods at a stretch without the pleasant relief of active exercise in fresh air. Needed by skilled artisans, professional and business men, and for success in competitive examinations:
- § 8. also for all whose occupations involve fatigue without exercise, *e.g.* signalmen, tramcar drivers and conductors, shop-assistants, clerks.
- § 9. The reason why the paramount value of this kind of physique escapes notice is that, unlike a feat of muscular strength, its exercise makes no show: also men who possess muscular strength are usually more symmetrical and healthy-looking than those who possess power of endurance.
- § 10. Value of physique attested by the existence of a medical examination of candidates for the Army and other examinations.  
Fallacy of the assertion often made that the physique of officers has deteriorated under the examination system. The kind of man that is wanted.
- § 11. Mind essential: Endurance essential: Muscle a valuable auxiliary.

### ANALYSIS

#### XII. THE SWORD, THE TONGUE, THE PEN, AS INSTRUMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

- § 1. At first sight, Sword seems strongest.
- § 2. Not correct: even in ancient times.
- § 3. Sword really weakest.  
Moral force stronger than physical force.
- § 4. Good government impossible under the Sword.

- § 5. Persuasion : its power.
- § 6. Power of Speech at the present day.
- § 7. Eighteenth Century orators had smaller audience but less responsibility.
- § 8. Nineteenth Century oratory has to be circumspect : and is therefore the better as an instrument of government.
- § 9. This removes the peculiar danger of government by speech.
- § 10. Advantage of the Pen over the Tongue.
- § 11. The governing power of the Press.

## SKETCH

THE SWORD, THE TONGUE, THE PEN, AS INSTRUMENTS  
OF GOVERNMENT

- § 1. At first sight, the Sword seems strongest : brute force seems stronger than moral force : at all events in ancient times.
- § 2. But this is not correct : even in ancient times, *e.g.* the tongue of Ulysses was as much dreaded by the Trojans as the sword of Achilles.
- § 3. In reality, the Sword is the weakest : *e.g.* Russia, Turkey, England under Cromwell.  
Moral force beats physical force in the long run : *e.g.* the Protestants of the Netherlands ; and Christianity itself.
- § 4. No stability of government under the rule of the Sword : which is properly for external, not internal use.
- § 5. The orator and the writer, wielding the force of persuasion, are the real governors of the people.

- § 6. Oratory: its operation in England: of late years enhanced by its diffusion through the Press.
- § 7. English oratory in the eighteenth century: narrower area of influence but less responsibility than in the nineteenth.
- § 8. Oratory of the nineteenth century has to be more circumspect and less vehement than in the eighteenth century; but is therefore all the better as an instrument of government.
- § 9. Danger of government by Speech. A Speaker is not necessarily a Statesman.
- § 10. The Pen, wielding like the Tongue, the force of persuasion, has the advantage in its power of iteration, and of reaching all who can read.
- § 11. The part of the Press, the Fourth Estate as it is called, in the government of the country. Its manifold functions described in detail.

## THE ESSAYS

### I. PEACE HATH HER VICTORIES NO LESS RENOWNED THAN WAR

THE Victories of Peace are gained over the forces of Nature: over disease: over civil tyranny and class oppression: over ignorance and immorality. They are bloodless conquests. They cost no orphan's curse: no widow's tears. They cause no suffering: on the contrary, they alleviate it. They leave no homesteads in smoking ruins, no maimed limbs or mutilated corpses, no barren fields or wasted crops. Where there is solid gain, it is true there must be solid loss. But the gains of Peace are like land reclaimed from the sea, and the sea is not perceptibly the poorer for its loss. The adversaries against whom Peace arrays her powers can afford to lose.

Victories of Peace contrasted with those of War.  
Note 1.

The nineteenth century is pre-eminently the age of the Victories of Peace. The inventor, the engineer, the doctor, the sanitary reformer, the political reformer, the social reformer have each his achievements to record. It is an epoch of triumphant progress in every department of life.

19th century the age of such Victories.

Foremost among those who have won these triumphs stand the inventor and the engineer. They have overcome the powers of Nature. They have mastered the great agent of electricity, and out of a destructive force<sup>2</sup> they have created a valuable servant, which propels vehicles, supplies light, rings bells and takes messages. The telegraph<sup>3</sup> beats the very sun in his course and annihilates time and space. Steam<sup>4</sup> laughs at wind and sea. Photography<sup>5</sup> faithfully fixes and retains the representation of men and things. Even of the spoken word, than which nothing is more fleeting or more easily lost,

Victory over Forces of Nature.  
Inventor and Engineer.  
Note 2.  
Note 3.  
Note 4.  
Note 5.

the phonograph preserves the exact record for future generations.

Victory  
over  
Disease.  
Doctor and  
Sanitary  
Reformer.  
Doctor.  
Note 6.  
Note 7.

The successes which have been achieved in the departments of medicine and of sanitary science are almost equally wonderful. Before the discovery of vaccination,<sup>6</sup> the horrible disease of small-pox was a scourge which constantly ravaged all classes of the community. It spared neither<sup>7</sup> the monarch in his palace nor the peasant in his hut. Louis the Fifteenth of France died of it. So did Queen Mary the Second of England. Every third or fourth person in this country was disfigured by its unsightly scars. This pest has been almost exterminated by vaccination, and its attacks upon vaccinated persons are comparatively harmless.

Note 8.

Another great discovery, that of chloroform and other anaesthetics, has mitigated the sufferings of mankind to an incalculable degree. So late as the Indian Mutiny, limbs were amputated while the patients were fully conscious of their agonies. Now a merciful oblivion is thrown over surgical operations by the action of these potent and beneficent drugs. In the same sphere as the doctor works the sanitary reformer. Cities are drained, slums are destroyed, open spaces are created or preserved, streets are cleansed, houses are ventilated. The ravages of that class of diseases, such as typhoid fever, cholera and the plague, which depends upon dirty and insanitary conditions, are checked and reduced to a minimum.

Sanitary  
Reformer.

Victory  
over Civil  
Tyranny  
and Class  
Oppres-  
sion.  
Political  
Reformer.

No less valuable than these are the Victories won over the forces of civil tyranny and class oppression. In our country, these have been Victories of Peace. The old absolute monarchies of Europe have, it is true, with scarcely an exception, been obliged to admit their subjects to a voice in the government under which they live. Some measure of freedom has been generally established. In most countries this has been effected by violence and revolution: in ours, by constitutional methods and reform. In this country to-day, every man has the right of free speech; almost every man has a vote; no man is debarred from

Note 9.

the full privileges of citizenship on account of his religious opinions; the forces of crime and disorder are kept in check by an efficient system of police; the administration of equal justice to all is ensured by the watchful criticism of an absolutely free Press. There was nothing like this at the beginning of this century; and save for a few riotous outbursts at critical moments, all this progress has been achieved without loss of blood.

The social reformer has perhaps the widest sphere of all. Material progress would be of but little value if it were not accompanied by moral improvement. The social reformer has done a great work. Education has been made compulsory, universal and gratuitous, and is no longer the privilege of the few. Workhouses, factories, lunatic asylums and prisons have been reformed, and the old scandals of the Marshalsea and the Fleet have been abolished. Drunkenness is condemned by public opinion. So is duelling. Literature has been cleansed from the coarseness which pervades and disfigures the works of our earlier writers. Among the lower orders, although much remains still to be attempted, in cleanliness, and decency, in habits and morals, in manners and speech, in refinement and taste, in all that is comprised in the word Civilisation, great and general improvement has been diffused.

Note 15.

Such are the Victories of Peace. The triumphs of war are of short duration. Too often they do but sow the seeds of terrible retaliation in the future. But the Victories of Peace do not rankle; and they endure to the end.

Durability of these Victories.

## NOTES

1. Notice the repetition of the preposition. It gives emphasis and distinction to each word which it precedes.
2. The "destructive force" is, of course, lightning.

The application of electricity to the many purposes which it now serves is of very recent date. Many of its uses, including the megaphone, the phonograph, various adaptations of the electric light, the kinetoscope, which supplies the well-known "living pictures," as well as improvements in the telephone, which was invented by Graham Bell in 1876, are due to the ingenuity of the American inventor, Edison, who was born so lately as 1847.

3. The honour of the invention of the telegraph is a subject of dispute between the Old World and the New. It lies between Wheatstone, an Englishman, in 1836; and Morse, an American, in 1837.

The first Atlantic Cable was laid between Valentia in Ireland and Newfoundland in 1858, and a second by the *Great Eastern* in 1866. Many other cables have been laid since.

If the 'Varsity Boat Race is just finished at twelve o'clock, noon, by Greenwich time, the result is known in New York at five minutes past seven, A.M., that is, five hours before it takes place.

4. Roughly speaking, the stationary steam-engine was invented by James Watt at the end of the eighteenth century, and the locomotive by George Stephenson about 1829. These are the two great names in the history of steam, but of course there are hundreds of others to whom innumerable minor inventions are due which have contributed to the perfection with which we are now familiar. Strictly speaking, Watt and Stephenson themselves were improvers, not discoverers; but their improvements were so original and so radical that they are fairly entitled to the honours commonly assigned to them.

The first voyage of a steamship from New York to Liverpool was made by the *Savannah* in twenty-six days

in 1819; and regular steam communication with America began in 1838.

5. From the daguerreotype, invented by a Frenchman called Daguerre in 1839, photography has progressed to the Kodak, the "living picture," and innumerable processes, such as photogravure, founded on photography.
6. Vaccination was ascertained to be a preventive of small-pox by Jenner in 1798. It was made compulsory in England in 1853, and Vaccination Officers were appointed in 1871 to enforce the Act. A small body of ungrateful and ignorant people have, of late years, organised a stubborn resistance to the compulsory preservation of themselves and the community from a loathsome disease.
7. The Particular for the General. It is more graphic than saying merely "It spared neither high nor low." See Part III., § 2.
8. Chloroform was first used as an anaesthetic by Sir James Simpson in 1847.
9. By the Reform Bill of 1832, the franchise, or right to vote, was given to the shopkeepers; by those of 1867 and 1884, it was extended to the working-man.
10. The Test Act was repealed in 1828. Catholic Emancipation was granted in 1829. No man is any longer excluded, as he was when the century opened, from Parliament, from the franchise, from the Civil Service, the Universities or the Army, because he is a Roman Catholic or a Dissenter or a Jew.
11. The modern police system was introduced by Sir Robert Peel in 1829.
12. National education was organised by Mr Forster in 1870. It has been made free of cost within the last few years.
13. The abuses connected with these institutions, ill-usage of paupers, confinement of sane persons in private asylums, gaol-fever and many other horrors, none of them separated from us by many years, of which the record still exists in the novels of Reade and Dickens, appear almost incredible to a generation which has grown up in these far better days.
14. The Particular for the General. See Note 7. I might have said simply "imprisonment for debt." The Mar-



shalsea and the Fleet were the two chief debtors' prisons. See Dickens' "Pickwick," Chap. XL. to XLII., and the early chapters of "Little Dorrit." See also Sir Walter Besant's "Chaplain of the Fleet."

15. Social reform would, by itself, easily form a subject for an entire Essay. The mitigation of the Criminal Code, the abolition of slavery, the Factory Act, the regulation of colliery labour, the discontinuance of transportation and many other topics might be added to those already alluded to. As this Essay is expressly designed to show how a large subject may be treated in an orderly manner within a strictly limited compass, exclusion of much otherwise suitable matter is inevitable.

#### WORDS AND PHRASES

anaesthetics = drugs that destroy sensation.  
 maimed = injured, crippled.

#### COMMENT

This Essay is an example of breaking up a subject into its divisions, and treating each division in its separate paragraph. It involves a general knowledge of the social and political history of the last three-quarters of the Nineteenth Century.

Notice that we do not employ *all* the facts at our command, but only such instances as are at once striking and readily apprehended. For instance, the anti-septic treatment, a discovery no less beneficial than vaccination or chloroform, is omitted as being not sufficiently familiar to most of those who are likely to use this book.

The selection of instances is a matter of judgment acting upon knowledge. We review the facts we know under each heading; and we pick out those which serve our immediate purpose, having strict regard to our limits of space and time. This Essay covers a great deal of ground; and therefore each division of the subject must be touched lightly and not overloaded.

## II. DUELLING

The institution of single combat is as old as the beginning of history. In the earliest times, selected champions did battle on behalf of opposing armies. The combat of the Horatii with the Curiatii, the champions of Rome with the champions of Alba, is the subject of one of the oldest of Roman legends. The victory of David over Goliath, the champion of the Israelites over the champion of the Philistines, is one of the most striking episodes in the Old Testament.

Single  
Combat in  
Early  
History.

Note 1.

Note 2.

Under the Feudal System, the institution of single combat assumed extraordinary prominence. It was one of the chief features of mediaeval chivalry. It was ordained and regulated by the laws of knighthood. It was practised and perfected in the mimic warfare of the tournament, before the eyes of ladies who bound their scarves upon the arms of combatants, and amid the plaudits of enthusiastic spectators. On the battle-field itself distinguished leaders engaged single-handed with each other. It was even a feature of the mediaeval system of justice; and the ordeal of battle was regularly made use of to decide disputes which would in modern times be settled by a court of law. In the reign of Richard the Second, for instance, two of the greatest nobles in the land, the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk, who had accused each other of high treason, appeared in the lists to fight out their quarrel in the presence of the king himself.

Single  
Combat in  
Feudal  
Times.

Note 3.

Note 4.

With the decay of the Feudal System, such episodes disappeared; and the institution began to assume the form which it retained up to the verge of our own times. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, a sword formed part of the dress of every gentleman; and the temptation to use so convenient an instrument for the prompt settlement of quarrels was seldom resisted. Historical novels which concern themselves with these periods are full of such brawls; and the art of swordsmanship was a necessary and important part of a man's

Duelling  
in 16th,  
17th, and  
18th cen-  
turies.

education and accomplishments. In the eighteenth century, the rapier became the favourite weapon of gentlemen; and, especially in France, it was handled with consummate skill. Many and terrible were the duels of this period. One of the most celebrated was the duel between Lord Mohun and the Duke of Hamilton, in which both combatants were killed, and the seconds on both sides engaged in the quarrel of their principals.

So late as early 19th century it was in full force. The latter part of the nineteenth century has witnessed the abolition of duelling in this country. But in the early years of the century, the institution was in full force. Novels are always valuable evidence as reflecting the social phenomena of the time with which they deal, and in the novel of the early part of this century, the duel usually forms one of the important sensational episodes. Nor was it confined to blustering bullies or officers who had drunk too much wine at mess. Grave statesmen and dignitaries did not hesitate to have recourse to this method of settling political differences of opinion or of apologising for Parliamentary personalities.

Even among Statesmen.

Note 5.

Note 6.

Note 7.

Note 8.

On the failure of the Walcheren Expedition, Lord Castlereagh and Mr Canning, who were Secretaries of State, quarrelled about the responsibility for the disaster and a duel was the consequence. Incredible as it may now seem, Daniel O'Connell, the Irish agitator, received a challenge from no less a person than Sir Robert Peel; and a meeting was arranged, though it was frustrated by timely intervention. The most striking instance of all was the duel which actually did take place between Lord Winchilsea and the great Duke of Wellington. The two statesmen quarrelled over the question of Catholic Emancipation; and the Duke, feeling himself insulted by a speech of Lord Winchilsea, sent him a challenge. It was accepted; the duel took place on Battersea Common; but neither combatant was hit. It would have been a strange irony of fate if the Victor of Waterloo, the Conqueror of Napoleon, the "Hero of a Hundred Fights," had fallen by the hand of a fellow-countryman upon his native soil.

But the days of the duel in England were numbered. The cool common-sense of English society became alive to the absurdity of settling differences by so uncertain and unsatisfactory a method; and some striking incidents which occurred to illustrate the evils inherent in the practice created a consensus of public opinion against it which it was powerless to resist. Among these incidents was one which is known by the name of the "Black Bottle" duel. Two officers of the same regiment quarrelled and fought a duel over the question whether some claret should be placed on the mess table in a black bottle without being decanted into a claret jug. It was rightly felt to be preposterous that comrades should stand up to shoot each other over such trumpery matters. A strong association of noblemen and military men was formed to discourage duelling; and the Prince Consort threw his influence into the same scale. The result has been the total extinction of this barbarous practice in our islands.

Growth of  
feeling in  
England  
against  
Duelling.

On the Continent, duelling still maintains its ground, though such encounters are neither so frequent nor so dangerous as they formerly were. It is seldom that a fatal result ensues. In France, the practice is chiefly confined to irritable journalists, who occasionally vary the monotony of warfare with the pen by a brief interlude with the sword. These displays of martial spirit are usually announced beforehand, and are not entirely without value as advertisements. In Germany, duelling prevails enormously among the students at the Universities. Almost every student belongs to a Club and these Clubs challenge each other. The selected combatants are carefully padded from head to foot, and only their faces are left bare. The weapons are swords. There is never any danger to life, and the only result is a scar on the face, a disfigurement of which the possessor is afterwards extremely proud. Occasionally, however, some really desperate duel of the old type takes place on the Continent to remind us that a practice once so general has not yet wholly lost its former vitality.

Feeble  
survival of  
Duelling  
on the  
Continent.

Modern  
American  
Duel :  
rough but  
deadly :  
contrasted  
with cere-  
monious  
affairs of  
honour of  
Georgian  
period.

It is, however, in America that we find the most sanguinary type of modern duelling. It is a rough and ready proceeding, accompanied by none of the punctilious courtesy and deliberate ceremony which adorned the practice in its palmy days. Among the upper classes in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the affair of honour, as it was called, was conducted according to rigorous rules. The person who was challenged had the choice of weapons. In France, the favourite weapon was the rapier, in England, the pistol. An elaborate politeness marked every stage of the affair ; and an affected indifference was esteemed a mark of good breeding. The Duke of York, the second son of King George the Third, on returning from his duel with Mr Lennox, an officer of the Coldstream Guards, was questioned by his brother, the Prince of Wales, as to how the affair had gone. To which the Duke replied that he had not time to tell him then as he was just off to play tennis. Of a very different character is the duel as it is found among the cowboys and the settlers of the North American wilds. No seconds are chosen ; no rendezvous is made at daybreak on a quiet common ; no surgeon is in watchful attendance ; no carriage is in waiting to carry the too successful combatant away from the reach of justice. A quarrel arises in a bar or a gambling saloon, over a drink or a game of cards, and the dissentients settle the matter on the spot by means of the revolver which each man carries in his trousers' pocket.

The prac-  
tice of  
Duelling  
indefens-  
ible.  
Arguments  
for and  
against.

There are few institutions, however vicious, that have ever strongly taken root among mankind, for which some apology cannot be offered. On behalf of the duel it has been urged that it promoted courtesy and good manners ; that it encouraged marksmanship and fencing ; that adversaries who had faced each other with their lives in their hands often subsequently became good friends ; that it was a more dignified way of settling a quarrel than by means of lawyers and litigation. These arguments are hardly worth consideration. If it were certain that the man who had right on his side would be

victorious, there might be something to be said for this method of settling a quarrel ; but even thus there are few quarrels in which the extreme punishment of death deserves to be inflicted on either party. The law reserves the punishment of death only for the most awful crimes. In the duel, moreover, unless the sense of guilt unnerve, victory rests simply with steadiness, experience and skill. A man of nervous temperament unaccustomed to such ordeals, would have no chance, however good his cause, against a callous bully who had been often out before. Indeed the professional duellist was no uncommon character in society in the days when the duel flourished. In any case the trifling merits attaching to the practice could never be weighed for a moment against the terrible tragedies which it has repeatedly involved. Life is not to be lightly taken, nor for trivial causes ; and with regard to the majority of the offences which were once wont to be referred to the arbitrament of the duel, common-sense has long since inclined to the opinion that they are not nearly so much heroic as absurd, and that not death but derision is their appropriate remedy.

## NOTES

1. See Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome," "Horatius," or the Classical Dictionary.
2. See 1 Samuel, Chap. xvii.
3. See (*e.g.*) Sir Walter Scott's "Ivanhoe," and Froissart's Chronicles.
4. "If the Conquest did not introduce the trial by wager of battle, it greatly increased its use, and it was awarded not only in criminal but in some civil causes. The accused, if he chose, threw down his gauntlet or glove, and declared his readiness to prove his innocence by personal combat; if the accuser took up the glove, the judges, supposing they had any doubt in the case, awarded a trial by battle. When the combatants met in the presence of the judges, each took an oath that he had resorted to no means for securing the aid of the devil in the approaching combat. If the accused was vanquished, he was forthwith hanged; but if victorious, or if he held out till starlight, or the appellant yielded, or cried craven, he was acquitted of the charge, and the appellant compelled to pay the accused damages, besides being subject to further penalties."—Ross's "Manual of English History," p. 91.
5. The Walcheren Expedition took place in 1809. It was one of the most miserable failures in which the British Army has ever been concerned. Forty thousand men and twenty millions of money were wasted by abject mismanagement. Canning was Foreign Secretary, and Lord Castlereagh was Secretary at War. Each threw the blame on the other.
6. Daniel O'Connell, the "Liberator," was the champion of Home Rule for Ireland in the early part of the nineteenth century. Besides the occasion mentioned in the text, O'Connell was twice challenged, once by Lord Alvanley, whom he had described as a "bloated buffoon," and again by D'Israeli, whom he had described as the "lineal descendant of the blasphemous thief": from which it would appear that the promotion of good manners by the fear of the consequences of their infraction was not invariable.

7. Sir Robert Peel, Conservative Premier 1834, and again from 1841 to 1846.
8. Until 1829, Roman Catholics were not allowed to sit in Parliament or to vote for Parliament or to hold Commissions in the Army or the Navy.

#### WORDS AND PHRASES

phenomena = noticeable facts.

consensus = agreement.

journalist = a newspaper writer.

interlude = an interval between two acts of a play,  
occupied by a short piece or music, etc.

punctilious = precise, careful.

rendezvous = originally a French word, means a  
"meeting by appointment."

litigation = legal contention, lawsuits.

callous = hardened (*callum*, hard skin).

#### COMMENT

This is a subject for light historic treatment by means of instances.



## III. "SI VIS PACEM, PARA BELLUM"

Translation of Title.

From Civilisation we should expect Peace: not, as we see, general preparation for War.

Statistics. Armies. Note 1.

"If you desire peace, be ready for war."

The mission of civilisation would, at first sight, appear to be the mitigation of the savage passions of mankind, the alleviation of suffering, the establishment of harmony and peaceful intercourse between nations. Yet, as a matter of fact, we see that civilisation has devoted the best energies of her inventors, her scientists, her engineers, to the manufacture and perfection of the deadliest instruments of destruction. We see the whole civilised world standing to arms, all Europe bristling with bayonets. The balance of peace is only maintained by the menace of war.

The cost of this condition of armed tension is prodigious. In time of peace, the Russian army numbers about eight hundred thousand men; that of Germany, five hundred and eighty thousand; that of France, about the same; that of Italy, two hundred and fifty thousand; that of Austria, three hundred and twenty-five thousand; that of Great Britain, apart from the Indian troops and the reserves, about two hundred and twenty-five thousand. These six great civilised powers, therefore, support in time of peace almost three millions of men. The maintenance of these huge forces is all dead loss. The loss does not consist merely in the soldier's pay and the cost of his keep and clothing. There is the further fact that he is withdrawn from productive labour. His services are lost to the community. He might be a useful worker: whereas he is only a burden on the workers. We have to add to this the cost of guns, rifles, munitions of war, horses, waggons, barracks and fortifications. The annual military expenditure of Germany is about twenty-seven millions of our money; that of France, twenty-five millions; that of Great Britain, eighteen millions. Thus the armies of these three powers alone cost seventy millions of money per annum in time of peace.

The navy of Germany is manned by twenty-three thousand men; that of France, by forty-six thousand; that of Great Britain, by ninety-four thousand. The German navy costs four and a half millions per annum; the French, ten and a half millions; the British, twenty-two millions. These three navies, therefore, contain altogether, about a hundred and sixty-three thousand men, and cost thirty-seven millions of money every year.

Thus the total annual expenditure of these three great European powers alone upon their military and naval peace establishments exceeds a hundred millions. The expenditure of Russia upon her army is a secret; but it cannot be less than that of Germany. If we reckon by the relative size of the armies of the two countries, it must be more. It may fairly be guessed at thirty millions. To this must be added the cost of her navy, which is known to be six millions. If we add these estimates to the previous calculation, we have a total expenditure of not less than one hundred and forty-five millions per annum on the part of the four great powers.

Such is the tax which Europe pays for peace. It is very heavy; it never grows less; and the nations of Europe are all impoverished by it.

Yet it is necessary. For to be weak is to invite aggression. Poland is a case in point. Poland was a great country, full of brave men and devoted patriots. But her military system was antiquated; she had not moved with the times; she relied upon methods of warfare which were long since obsolete. Her armies fought in the eighteenth century as they had fought under the Feudal System; and they were no match for the compact and highly-disciplined forces of the great Frederick and the Empress Queen. Resistance was in vain, and the great kingdom of Poland was absorbed by its three rapacious and unscrupulous neighbours.

It is a vital question then, for every man, whether his country is prepared for war or not. To no nation is the question of more importance than to our own. Preparation for war is the means to peace, and Great

Statistics.  
Navies.

Totals of  
Expendi-  
ture on  
Armies  
and  
Navies.

The Tax  
which  
Europe  
pays for  
Peace.

Necessary,  
however.

Note 2.

Paramount  
necessity  
of Defence  
for British  
Empire in  
particular.

- Reasons.** Britain has special reasons for desiring peace. In the first place we have more territory to defend than any other people, and that territory is scattered all over the globe. The Russian Empire is the next in size to our own. It is one-sixth of the world. But you can run a railway train from one end of it to the other. The empire, on the contrary, which is administered from Downing Street, is scattered over every quarter of the earth's surface, and a considerable portion of it is actually at the very antipodes themselves. In the second place, we import vast quantities of the food which we consume. Any war as it is which interferes with a country from which we draw any portion of our food supplies causes us inconvenience and expense ; but if anything occurred to altogether stop our supplies of foreign corn, we should starve. In the third place, our commerce is by far the greatest in the world, and war, with a great naval power at any rate, would probably involve its paralysis or its destruction.

- Note 3.**
- Note 4.**
- How we ought to be permanently prepared.** That this country should be thoroughly prepared for all emergencies must therefore be the desire of every sensible Englishman. The navy must be the first consideration. It must be capable of protecting our country, our commerce, our food supply and our colonies. At present it is probably a match for any two foreign navies put together, if not for any three. But no spirit of false economy must prevent it from being always kept up to a condition of immensely predominant strength. Battle-ships are not built, nor guns cast, nor men trained, in a day. Ports and coaling-stations should be effectively protected. There should be ample magazines and reserves of guns to take the place of those short-lived pieces of ordnance which are worn out with not many repetitions of their use. Every new invention in the art of war should be carefully considered and tested. The officers of our army should accustom themselves to take their profession seriously ; and the men should be taught the art of scouting and the evolutions of the open field as well as those of the barrack-yard. Substantial prizes should be given for good averages of
- Note 5.**

regimental marksmanship as well as for individual proficiency. The Transvaal War, the most instructive conflict of modern times, has effectually demonstrated that our Auxiliary Forces are not merely useful, they are absolutely indispensable. Without the Yeomanry, the Volunteers, and the Militia, our armies in the field would have been incomplete and our home defence entirely unprovided. Upon the encouragement and development of the Auxiliary Forces depends the provision of a permanent and complete preparation for war with which we can feel satisfied and secure.

Lastly, by whatever system it may be effected, every man should learn to use a rifle, and there should be a rifle in store for every man to use. However much Englishmen may differ among themselves, however various may be their religious or political convictions, experience has always shown that they sink their differences and postpone their disputes in the presence of national danger. The Spanish Armada found a Catholic admiral in command of the English fleet; and when Napoleon at Boulogne menaced England with invasion, the nation rose to arms like one man. Of all the lessons taught us by the Boer War, none is more clear or convincing than the value of the intelligent amateur, especially when he is acting on the defensive. An amateur can never, of course, be quite equal to a professional soldier. Still, the athletic training of the majority of Englishmen endows them with many soldierly qualities to start with. Sportsmen, football players, cricketers, bicyclists, are all good raw material. They are accustomed to active exertion, they possess dexterity and self-reliance, and if in addition they are tolerable marksmen, they would prove, it may reasonably be expected, as valuable for the defence of fortifications and entrenchments as the farmers of the Transvaal or the Orange Free State.

How we ought to be prepared for the last emergency.

Note 6.

Note 7.

We are not a combative people. But we must protect ourselves.

Whatever we may hope, we may be sure that the possibility of a supreme national emergency is never very far distant. The way to prevent it is to anticipate it. We pay the penalty for the splendour and glory of our Empire in the envy and jealousy of almost every

other nation in the world. We are singularly friendless and isolated. On the initiative of the Czar of Russia, a conference was recently held with a view to a general reduction of European armaments. Within a year of that conference, England was embarrassed by a difficult and arduous war in South Africa ; and the undisguised hostility that was instantly manifested to her by almost the whole of the Continental Press proved emphatically how great an error she would commit if she diminished her army by a single regiment or her navy by a single ship. We are not a combative or an irritable people. We have never waged wars of personal ambition and territorial aggrandisement like those of Louis the Fourteenth or Frederick the Great or Napoleon. Of our Empire as much has been acquired by peaceful as by warlike means, as much by colonisation as by conquest, and much by a combination of both ; but the vast size of our possessions offers an irresistible temptation to armed nations conscious of their strength, and we must stand on guard before the whole.

NOTES

1. These statistics are taken from *Whitaker's Almanac* for 1898.
2. Frederick the Great of Prussia combined with Maria Theresa, Empress-Queen of Austria-Hungary, and the Czar of Russia, to partition Poland. The first partition took place in 1772, and the final partition in 1795.
3. Russia in Europe and Siberia are in reality one and the same country, the Ural Mountains being practically no interruption to their geographical continuity. Politically, the Russians themselves recognise no frontier between the two. When the Trans-Siberian railway is completed, as it will be in a year or two at most, it will be possible to travel from St Petersburg on the Baltic to Port Arthur on the East coast of Asia entirely by rail.
4. The office of the Prime Minister is in Downing Street ; which is therefore the centre of the government of the British Empire.
5. The heaviest of the guns carried by battleships can only be fired a limited number of times before they become inaccurate.
6. Lord Howard of Effingham, a Catholic, commanded the English fleet against the Spanish Armada, 1588.
7. In 1804, when Napoleon was preparing his flotilla at Boulogne for the invasion of England, 350,000 volunteers, an enormous number if we consider the population of the country at that time, took up arms to resist the threatened attack.

WORDS AND PHRASES

mitigation = softening (*mitis*, mild).

alleviation = relief (*levis*, light).

menace = threat (*minax*, threatening).

state of tension, *i.e.* strained and stretched, like a taut rope (*tendo*, to stretch).

dexterity = handiness (*dexter*, the right hand).

"diminish her army by a single regiment or her navy by a single ship."—See the article on "Antithesis," Part III. § 4.

## COMMENT

It is scarcely possible to take up a newspaper without finding some allusion to the facts and considerations adduced in this Essay. Preparation for war is the most important question of the day. The statistics and the bulk of the subject-matter should be thoroughly mastered. They are bound to come in useful: though the statistics must obviously vary from year to year, invariably in the direction of increase.

# IV. TRAVELLING TO-DAY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO

Three score years and ten are proverbially taken to express the term of a long life. It is by such a distance of time that the modern methods of locomotion by means of machinery are separated from the old-fashioned methods of locomotion by means of horse-flesh. About a third of the nineteenth century had elapsed when the application of steam to locomotion completely revolutionised the previously existing methods of travel. There are but few men now alive whose own personal experience enables them to institute a comparison between the two systems. The literature of the coaching period, however, is copious, and it is popularly and profusely illustrated, so that ample materials for comparison exist.

Introductory  
Comment,  
suggested  
by phrase  
"Seventy  
Years."

Note 1.

The generations which have found locomotion by rail an established institution when they came into the world are in danger of taking the luxury of modern travelling as a matter of course, and of forgetting the trials and discomforts experienced by their ancestors when they moved from place to place. A partial revival of coaching has occurred in our own time. Still it is one thing to spend a few hours of fine weather on the top of a coach for amusement, and it was quite another thing to make a forced journey in cold weather in the inside of such a vehicle. There is one aspect, however, of the old system, which the modern coach-drive recalls emphatically to our minds; and that is the expense. The tariff is more nearly that of cab-hire than of railway charges. Not only were the fares high, but the gratuities to the guards and coachmen, which were customary and could not be evaded, were very considerable. The post-chaise, with its postilion and pair of horses renewed every stage, was of course more costly than the coach. The expense was further increased by the time consumed on the road, which involved meals and beds at inns and an additional outlay in gratuities to waiter, chambermaid and "Boots."

Travelling  
by Coach:  
not to be  
judged by  
modern  
revival of  
Coaching.

Note 2.

Except as  
regards  
Disadvan-  
tage: (a)  
Expense,  
which was  
aggravated  
by time  
consumed,  
involving  
Hotel  
Charges.



Disadvantage : (b)  
Discomfort of  
inside of  
Coach.

Note 3.

To travel on the outside of a coach was, in fine weather, extremely pleasant. In bad weather, or if the traveller were in indifferent health, in rain or snow or an East wind, it was extremely trying. But whatever the outside might be, the inside was always odious. The inside of the modern coaches that are driven for pleasure is never used for the accommodation of passengers. Those modern travellers who have any experience of the interior of the diligence on the Continent would be sorry to be obliged to make their journeys from Liverpool or Edinburgh to London in the inside of a coach. The discomfort of the inside is acute. The atmosphere is a mixture of stuffiness and draughts ; cramp results from the impossibility of varying your position ; and you are far too close to your fellow-passengers and too much at their mercy if they happen to be disagreeable. The pictures of the old coaching days show us the team and the coachman and the guard and the outside passengers ; but they do not show us the solid discomfort and the wearisome monotony of the closely-packed victims in the inside.

Disadvantage : (c)  
Waste of  
Time.

The time wasted on a long journey seventy years ago was, according to modern estimates, prodigious. Ten miles an hour is, of course, a high rate of speed for the road ; and to accomplish a hundred miles in a day was good travelling. The journey to the metropolis from Bristol took a day ; from Liverpool, two days ; from Edinburgh, three or four days. These journeys now occupy respectively a little over two hours, a little over four hours, and a little over eight hours.

All advantages, including (d)  
Safety, are on the side  
of the  
Railway.

In point of expense, in point of comfort, in point of consumption of time, a well-appointed express train of the present day is an infinite improvement on the best stage-coach that ever ran. We should add that it is superior in point of safety too. Railway accidents are extremely rare ; and, when they do occur, they attract a degree of public attention disproportionate to their actual magnitude. There are more casualties in a year in the streets of London than among all the railway passengers in the kingdom put together. If we were to col-

late statistics, we should find that the traveller by train enjoys a far higher degree of security for life and limb than did the traveller by coach. In his corridor-carriage warmed with hot air and lighted by electricity, running smoothly over an even permanent way, the modern English traveller is conveyed safely, swiftly, comfortably and cheaply; and he can even, if he chooses, eat his dinner in a restaurant or spend a night in bed while he is speeding from place to place.

Picture of  
Up-to-date  
Train.

In travelling by sea, the revolution is no less remarkable. When Lord Macaulay went to India in 1834, the voyage occupied never less than three months, occasionally six and sometimes even twelve. People made preparations accordingly. They spent considerable sums in fitting up and furnishing the cabins which were to be their homes for so long a period of time. The traveller from England can now reach Bombay in less than a fortnight and New York in less than a week. Moreover, the shorter the time during which he is exposed to the chances of the sea, the less considerable is the risk he runs. The luxury of these floating hotels, with their huge saloons, their handsome upholstery, their elaborate *menu*, their electric light, is no less wonderful than their enormous speed.

Travelling  
by Sea: its  
Speed:

its Luxury.

The improvement in modern methods of locomotion has not been entirely without its drawbacks. An essential feature of the old-fashioned method of travelling was the old-fashioned inn; and no one can read the literature of the period antecedent to travelling by rail without being struck by the prominent part played by the inns in the life of the country and the affectionate regard in which they were generally held. Indeed no place could be more comfortable than a well-managed institution of this class at which to arrive in the course of a long journey, to enjoy a well-cooked meal and a social evening in unaccustomed company, and to be refreshed by a sound night's rest in an excellent bed. Some of these coaching inns were of great size and importance. They had their own farms whence they drew their supplies of meat and poultry

Old  
Coaching  
Inns.

Note 4.

and vegetables: their fish-ponds, because the transit of fresh fish from the coast was seldom practicable: their huge labyrinths of stables and coach-houses: their little armies of post-boys and ostlers. The landlord was usually a person of some consideration, well-known to all the country round. The wainscotted parlours, the rambling passages, the vast cellars of old wines, the snug bar that served many of the purposes of a modern club, the warmth and friendliness and geniality of the old inn life, amid which so much of our ancestors' time was spent, have now entirely vanished. We have railway hotels instead. The landlord is a company and his representative a clerk; the bar-parlour has been transformed into an office; the guests have ceased to be persons and have become numbers; and the comforts of a home have been exchanged for the chilly splendours of a palace.

Contrast  
with  
Railway  
Hotels.

Extension  
of Travel-  
ling.

Note 5.

Habit of  
Travelling.

Danger in-  
cidental to  
this Habit.

The facilities afforded by the introduction of railways and steamships soon led to an enormous extension of the area of travel and an enormous increase in the number of travellers. Enterprising agencies took up the business. By skilful management and organisation, tours which formerly were the privilege of the rich have been brought within the reach of all who are tolerably well-to-do. The mountains of Switzerland, the fiords of Norway are every year visited by thousands of people who, at the beginning of this century, would have been satisfied with Ramsgate or Worthing. A trip to the Holy Land, a visit to India, even the circuit of the world, can be accomplished with no extravagant expenditure of time or money. The development of the facilities for travel have created a taste and a habit. Change of scene and surroundings is recognised as an essential feature of holiday; and holiday, in these days of high pressure and feverish activity, is an essential feature of modern life. This craving for variety does undoubtedly degenerate into that morbid restlessness, characteristic of highly-strung nervous systems, which is especially conspicuous in the temperament of the American: a habit of mind which is apt to forget

the charm of contemplation and to subordinate every consideration to rapidity of movement.

A feature of the last few years has been a partial revival of highway travelling which may possibly have interesting developments in the immediate future. Revival of Highway Travelling.

Steam stole away locomotion from the road, but the cycle and the motor-car seem not unlikely to bring it back again. It can never, of course, regain its old importance and its essential character. The railroad will always remain the highway for serious business purposes. Still, if locomotion on the high road becomes, as seems possible, reasonably cheap and swift and easy, there are charms about such a method of travelling which will ensure it a preference among many persons of tolerable means and leisure. Its privacy and independence, its freedom from hurry and crowd, the opportunities which it affords for the enjoyment of scenery and for acquiring an acquaintance with the country, appeal to increasingly large numbers of people, if only it can be practised with reasonable facility and moderate expense. The cycle has done much to bring the road into popularity again. The Cycle.

The merits of the cycle, however, as a conveyance are limited to its speed. It is useless in bad weather or on rough ground; it is fragile; and it is incapable of carrying anything but the merest minimum of personal luggage. Its limitations.

A more robust vehicle, independent of personal exertion for its propulsion, is necessary if the use of the road for traffic over long distances is to become general and serious. The possibility, therefore, of the revival of travelling by road instead of by rail will depend upon the development of the capabilities of the motor-car. Should this development be successful, we may expect, in the near future, to find our methods of travelling less widely removed from those of our ancestors than they are to-day. Motor Vehicles.

## NOTES

1. For the literature of the coaching days, see the novels of Dickens and Albert Smith. The best description in literature of a coach-journey is contained in Dickens's "Martin Chuzzlewit." For pictorial illustrations, see the original editions of the above novels, or any print-shop. In these novels, you will also find descriptions of the old inns.
2. Many such coaches run from London to places of interest, such as Virginia Water, at a moderate distance from town. They are not infrequently owned by dealers in horses, who sell the teams at the end of the season for carriage-horses. They are exceedingly well-horsed and well-appointed.
3. The diligence is a huge lumbering stage-coach used in those parts of the Continent where there are no railways. It is a State institution; and it travels about six or seven miles an hour.
4. See above: Note 1.
5. Messrs Cook and Sons are the chief of these agencies.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

gratuities = "tips."

collate = compare, put side by side.

statistics = numbers, figures, *e.g.* "Out of a million and a half of passengers, not a score were killed."

chilly splendours of a palace. An oxymoron. See article "Oxymoron" in Part III. § 5.

morbid = diseased, unhealthy.

## COMMENT

This Essay is an easy one. It presupposes only a general knowledge, easily obtained from novels, of English life prior to the introduction of railways; together with sufficient power of observation and thoughtfulness to notice and digest a few of the facts that press on our attention every time we move about from place to place.

## V. MILITARY MUSIC

The functions of military music are far more important and varied than any superficial observer would suppose. Music is generally regarded chiefly as an agreeable means of amusement and recreation, as one of the most refined and expressive of the arts, as appealing to emotion and contributing to pleasure. Military music does all this, and more. It has its value as a means of recreation. It has also a practical utility which renders it a most important accessory of the art of war.

The band which marches at the head of a regiment is of the greatest possible practical assistance to the men in enabling them to keep step. Especially is this the case when they are marching over rough ground, where it is difficult to move in unison, or in passing over grass, whereon their footsteps are inaudible. The moral effect of the music is to beguile the tedium and monotony of the march, and to encourage the men to persevere when they are dispirited and tired.

One instrument of music in particular has a special and peculiar function in a military connection. This is the bugle. In the field, the bugle takes the place of the word of command. It can be heard at distances beyond the compass of the human voice. It is therefore especially useful for troops extended widely over a considerable area in skirmishing order. What the bugle is to a rifle regiment, the cavalry trumpet is to mounted troops. Amid the clatter of accoutrements and the thunder of hoofs, the human voice would be lost. The tones of the trumpet reach the ears both of man and horse. Horses, it is well known, are extremely susceptible to musical sounds. Circus horses learn their tricks to the accompaniment of particular tunes. The old hunter pricks up his ears at the distant music of the huntsman's horn. Cavalry horses learn to know the notes that regulate their movements, and obey them with no less promptitude and precision than their

Military Music is not merely a means of recreation. It has also practical uses.

Enables the men to keep step; and maintains their spirits.

The Bugle in the Field.

The Cavalry Trumpet.

Its effects on the Horses.

**The Bugle in Barracks.** riders. In barracks, again, the bugle carries to every room and staircase the hour of the day and the order for the moment, and in addition to its other functions performs the duties of a clock or bell.

**The Drum.** The drum is another instrument of music that has a distinctively military character. The big drum is used, with or without the band, to mark the time in marching; and the kettle-drums are used, like the bugle, to convey certain orders. The roll of the drum has a peculiarly inspiring and martial effect; and the sound of its distant throbbing, rising and falling as the wind carries it, arrests the listener's attention and sets his pulses beating. It has another function, too, of a very different character. It attends the soldier to his last home; and no one who has witnessed a military funeral will ever forget the indescribably mournful effect of the muffled drums, whose dull, spiritless sound is suggestive of insensibility and death.

**Music keeps the men out of mischief when off duty, and enlivens military life in many ways.** The greatest difficulty in managing a body of men is to keep them out of mischief when unemployed and off duty. The soldier necessarily has a good deal of leisure. The playing of the regimental band beguiles his vacant time and is an influence which tends to keep him out of the canteen. The band also serves to give *éclat* to guest nights at the officers' mess; to supply the music at regimental dances; to give another regiment a hearty send-off on its departure for foreign service, or to play it up to barracks on its arrival home.

**Regimental Bands popularise the Army with the Public.** Regimental bands do much to popularise the Service with the general public. In every part of the country they are to be found playing at exhibitions, dances, flower-shows and other entertainments. Their handsome uniforms, their brightly-polished instruments, their discipline and smartness lend an added zest to the music itself, and tend to stimulate the pride and interest of the nation in its Army. Military music is a leading feature in the pomp and pageantry of war, in the bright and exhilarating aspect of that stern and terrible reality, in all that wins the eye and ear and captivates the fancy. Every one likes to watch the

tall drum-major twirling his big bâton; or the pipers of a Highland regiment with their chests thrown out, their martial gait and swinging kilts; or the grey drum horse of the Life Guards marching sedately by himself without touch of rein, while his rider with both hands plies his silver kettledrums, the Prince of Wales's gift.

Most regiments have their own special regimental tunes. These airs are invaluable in promoting that essential quality of the soldier, that mixture of loyalty to his comrades and his chiefs, combined with pride in his uniform and devotion to the flag, which we know under the name of *esprit de corps*. On more occasions than one, regimental tunes have contributed a dramatic effect to striking episodes in military history. The distant sound of the bag-pipes and the strains of "The Campbells are coming" are said to have indicated to the beleaguered garrison of Lucknow the approach of Sir Colin Campbell's army of relief. When the Gordon Highlanders charged up the hill at Dargai, the wounded piper, shot through both ankles and helpless on the ground, continued playing the Gordons' war-song, regardless of the hail of bullets around him. Other tunes there are which are not restricted to any one regiment but are common property of the army and the public; and in the memorable closing months of 1899, regiment after regiment, battery after battery marched, transport after transport sailed, to the strains of "Soldiers of the Queen" and "Auld Lang Syne."

What *esprit de corps* is to a regiment, that patriotism is to a nation. What is done on a small scale by a regimental tune is done on a large scale by a national anthem. Grand and mournful have been the associations of national airs with martial deeds. Among such airs, none has ever exercised so stupendous an influence over the fortunes of a people as the "*Marseillaise*." The French armies of the Revolution were without training or discipline; they were ill-fed and ill-clad; they were led by conceited and incompetent civilians; they had confidence neither in their officers nor them-

Regi-  
mental  
Tunes.

*Esprit de  
corps.*

Note 1.

Note 2.

Departure  
of Troops  
for the  
Transvaal.

Just as  
regimental  
tunes pro-  
mote *esprit  
de corps*, so  
national  
airs  
stimulate  
patriotism.  
i. The  
"Marseil-  
laise."  
Note 3.



selves. Yet they conquered the regular armies of Austria and Prussia ; defeated troops drilled and disciplined in the strictest schools of scientific warfare ; upset all the calculations of orthodox and experienced generals, and triumphantly violated every canon of military tradition, as when a regiment of their hussars galloped across the ice and captured the Dutch fleet at the Texel. What served these raw levies instead of discipline and training was enthusiasm ; and enthusiasm found special expression in the air and words of this marvellous song. You may read the story in the novels of Erckmann-Chatrian.

Note 4. The excitable Gaulish nature was roused to fury by this thrilling air. At its sound, the broken ranks closed, the wounded forgot their agony, the cowardly lost their fear, the shattered battalion rallied, as throat after throat took up the refrain.

ii. Crom-      Among a graver people, another revolutionary army  
well's      at a different period conquered in like fashion to the  
Troops      sound of psalm and hymn. The armies of the French  
and their      Revolution were inspired by the enthusiasm of liberty.  
Hymns.      The troops of Cromwell were inspired by the enthusiasm of religion. Both alike found a similar mode of expression of their feelings. What the "*Marseillaise*" was to the apostles of liberty, fraternity and equality, that the Old Hundredth was to the rebels against civil and religious tyranny.

Note 6.

iii. The      There is another song of a similar character which is  
Song of      full of pathetic interest. It is associated with a losing  
the South-      cause. "Maryland, my Maryland," was the song of  
erners in      the Southerners in the great American Civil War.<sup>7</sup> It  
the      was to the sound of that plaintive air that the soldiers  
American      of the South fought and suffered for their cause, and  
Civil War.      that the most famous fighting ship of modern times went  
Note 7.      forth from Cherbourg harbour to meet her doom.

Note 8.

English      Our own English National Anthem has more of a  
National      civil than a military character. It is a full and stately  
Anthem.      expression of our feelings as a people. Our emotions run deep ; and our martial instincts do not effervesce in bluster and hysterics. The calm and measured tones of our National Anthem remind us of our

wide-spread brotherhood, the glorious achievements of our past, the vast responsibilities of our future; and call to attention, not only the soldier but us all, to salute our Sovereign and the greatness of our Empire and our race.

## NOTES

1. During the Indian Mutiny, the British garrison of Lucknow, which was besieged by the mutineers, was finally relieved by Sir Colin Campbell, part of whose force consisted of the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders, on November 17, 1857. The story alluded to in the text is one of those familiar traditions on the authenticity of which it is the fashion of modern criticism to cast a slur; but it is sufficiently well established for the present purpose.
2. In the Chitral Campaign of 1898, the Gordon Highlanders, under the command of Colonel Mathias, stormed a hill at Dargai and captured the position. The pipers went into action with the regiment; and one of them, as he lay wounded and helpless on the ground, continued to play "The Cock of the North," the regimental air, upon his pipes, although in the midst of a storm of bullets.
3. The "*Marseillaise*" has a marvellous history. In July 1792, at the crisis of the French Revolution, a contingent of volunteers from the city of Marseilles, marched to Paris. A French colonel, Rouget de Lille, composed a hymn or march for them; and the extraordinary fascination of this wild and passionate composition so completely caught the popular ear and harmonised with the popular mood, that it became the national air of the Revolutionary armies. Its effect, when sung in unison by large numbers of people, is thrilling and exciting beyond description.
4. In the winter of 1794, French hussars galloped across the ice and captured the ships which were frozen up in the Texel.
5. See Erckmann-Chatrian "*Madame Thérèse*," pp. 14, 15.
6. Liberty, fraternity and equality, the professed principles of the French Revolution, were what the French Revolutionary armies promised by proclamation to all nations who would accept their assistance in rebelling against their rulers.
7. The American Civil War lasted from 1861 to 1864.

It was waged between the Southern or Confederate States, which were slave-owners, against the Northern or Federal States, which were opposed to slavery. The North won.

8. In the course of the American Civil War, the Confederate Southern States, who had no navy, had a ship built for them, concealing of course the object for which she was designed, on the Mersey, by Messrs Laird of Birkenhead, in 1862. She left the Mersey on July 29, 1862, ostensibly on a trial trip; but her guns were put on board of her at sea, and she at once started on a career of destruction of the commerce of the Federal States. For two years, the *Alabama* was the terror of the Federal mercantile vessels: until at last she was caught in Cherbourg harbour by the Federal cruiser, *Kearsage*, and brought to the ordeal of battle. In the desperate duel which ensued, the *Alabama* was sunk, her last gun being discharged just as the ship went down.

#### WORDS AND PHRASES

accessory = an accompaniment, an assistance.

accoutrements = military arms, dress and equipment.

susceptible to = easily impressed by.

canteen = a regimental shop where provisions and liquor are sold.

*éclat*, a French word virtually adopted into the English language signifying "brilliancy," "striking effect."

gait = style of walking or moving.

orthodox = strictly correct.

canon = rule of doctrine or discipline.

plaintive = sad, mournful.

"effervesce in bluster and hysterics." Metaphor from a frothy beverage like champagne or soda-water which bubbles up quickly and as quickly subsides. What is meant is that the English temperament is not excitable: up one moment and down another. See Part III. § 1.

## COMMENT

The subject does not, at first sight, seem to offer much material. The practical uses of music and of particular instruments in a military connection are not obvious until we begin to think closely. The subject of war-songs might be indefinitely expanded, but not with propriety for the present purpose. Balance of parts is one of the most important elements in composition, and the immediate subject is "Military Music," in all its aspects.

## VI. GREAT RIVERS

In their industrial, in their commercial, in their military and strategic, even in their sentimental aspects, great rivers have always exercised a powerful influence upon the history of mankind, especially in its earlier stages. At a later period, the location of industries is governed by the position of coal-fields, and rivers as a means of communication are largely superseded by railways. But in the earlier stages of the development of countries, rivers take the leading part. They afford one of the chief necessities of life for man and beast; they promote fertility and supply water-power; they bring men together and assist peaceful intercourse and civilisation; or they serve as formidable barriers which can easily be defended against aggression from without.

In five aspects, Rivers are important.

The first in order of the industries to which men apply themselves is agriculture; and for agriculture, the river provides fertile soil and rich pasture, as well as water for irrigation and for the cattle to drink. An extreme case is that of Egypt, where its one great river is the life of the whole country. The people depend entirely upon the crops, and the crops depend entirely upon the Nile. For other industries, a river supplies motive power. Its force can be stored and employed to drive mills, to grind corn, to saw wood, even to work the dynamos that generate electric light, thus performing the functions of steam at little or no expense.

First aspect : Industrial.

A navigable river is the original natural mode of communication. It affords a means of transit which is easy and costs nothing. Men fix their habitation by a stream because they want water for many purposes both agricultural and domestic. Thus towns grow up on the banks of a river. If then the river is navigable, these towns can freely communicate with each other and exchange their products. The river is a natural highway for commerce, ready to hand and open to all. The importance of rivers for this purpose is however considerably reduced in modern times, owing to the introduction of railways. Birmingham, for instance, is

Second aspect : Commercial.

on no river; but no town is better situated for commercial purposes, or is in quicker touch with all the ports of the kingdom, than is the capital of the Midlands, owing to its position in the centre of the railway system. Still transit by water is far cheaper than transit by road or rail, and as rivers have been largely connected and supplemented by the artificial means of canals, vast quantities of goods are still moved by water-ways.

Illustration of Commercial importance in modern times—*e.g.* the Congo.  
Note 1.

The supreme importance of rivers in ancient times and their modified importance in modern times are clearly seen when we watch the opening up of a new country. Take, for instance, the Congo Free State.<sup>1</sup> The huge river Congo, from which the country derives its name, is the original avenue of commerce. For a little more than a hundred miles from its mouth, it is navigable for large steamers drawing eighteen feet of water; for the next two hundred odd miles it is broken by cataracts; for the next thousand miles it is navigable for vessels of four feet draught. Commerce at first located itself on the stretch of navigable water nearest the mouth. As commerce increased, the obstacle interposed by the stretch of broken water which comes next became intolerable. A railway was then devised and constructed for a length of two hundred and fifty miles to avoid this section. Goods can now be brought from the very heart of the Congo State for a thousand miles by water, then for two hundred and fifty miles by rail, then for a hundred miles by water to the mouth of the river, whence they pass to foreign countries. In the development, therefore, of a new country at the present day, in the first instance comes the use of the river, ultimately supplemented or superseded by the use of the railroad; while in times antecedent to the discovery of steam, or in countries where the commerce is not of sufficient value to repay the expense of a railway, the river is of supreme importance as a means of communication and transit.

Ports at the mouths of Rivers.

The mouth of a navigable river is the natural site for a port. By means of the river behind it, the port draws down the goods of its own country from the interior; by

means of the sea in front of it, it exports them to foreign countries. The port of New Orleans, for instance, stands at the mouth of the Mississippi, and the main stream of that great river is navigable for two thousand miles, while in the whole of its basin there are sixteen thousand miles of navigable water. Thus New Orleans taps an enormous portion of the interior of the North American continent. Liverpool, on the contrary, stands upon a river whose navigable extent is short, but wide and deep. But Liverpool has no need of a long navigable river for inland communication; for it is the converging point of an elaborate system of railways and it receives and distributes its goods by their means. All that Liverpool requires from the Mersey is a wide and deep approach, and unencumbered and constant access. In a country like England, highly developed and of small size, artificial means do the rest.

From a military point of view, a river is more important than any other natural feature. It is the finest protection, with the exception of the sea, that a country can possess. It is a natural fortification of the most effective description. So long as its weak points, its fords and bridges, are strongly guarded, it is virtually invulnerable. It is even more valuable than a mountain chain, because it can more easily be watched, and troops can more easily be moved from point to point to meet attack. To a country which is provided with the natural fortifications of mountain and river, the great problem of national defence is comparatively simple. Contrast Roumania with France. Roumania lies between the Carpathians and the Transylvanian Alps on the West, the Danube on the South, and the Pruth and the sea on the East. Its only vulnerable points are a narrow space in the extreme North and another narrow space in the extreme South-East. But in the case of France, the North-East frontier of the country is almost entirely artificial, and a great chain of costly fortresses is necessary for its protection. The natural geographical boundary of France is clearly the Rhine; and at the Rhine boundary history shows that France has always

Note 2.

Third aspect :  
Military.

Note 3.



aimed when she was strong enough. This object of her ambition was temporarily gained under Louis the Fourteenth, under the First Republic, under Napoleon ; and entered largely into the aspirations of the politicians of the Second Empire when they plunged into the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, only to meet with a complete and terrible disillusion.

Fourth  
aspect :  
Strategic.

To a general commanding an army in the field, the rivers of the country in which he is operating are matters of the most serious consideration. Not only may they be employed to protect the flank of an army, but they constitute natural lines of defence which are the most difficult of obstacles for an invading force to surmount. The battles of the Modder and the Tugela are fresh in our recollection. For the student of military history, the first thing for the comprehension of a campaign is to master on the map the course of the rivers in the region where the campaign takes place ; for by their position the military operations are largely governed or brought to a crisis, and great battles such as Blenheim are fought upon their banks. The military history of Europe is largely the history of the Danube and the Rhine.

Fifth  
aspect :  
Sentimental.

Though martial associations are closely connected with great rivers, other and gentler associations cluster round them more closely still. They are often a strong element in the attachment of a people to their country : an attachment which has need of a material object, such as a mountain or a river, to centre itself upon. The Rhine is not only the river of battle and bloodshed ; it is the river of the Fatherland, the beautiful possession of the German people, their darling and their pride. They would defend it to their last gasp, and nothing would so deeply wound the national honour as that the great German river should pass under the dominion of a foreign foe. Rivers, unlike mountains, are beneficent and kindly influences, and the fond feelings which they inspire are shown by the names of affection, such as " Old " Nile and " Father " Thames, which they receive. " Oh Tiber, Father Tiber, To whom

Note 4.

Note 5.

the Romans pray," was the invocation of the Roman hero when he leapt into the flood as the timbers of the bridge he had defended collapsed behind him. "Are not Abana and Pharpar, rivers of Damascus," exclaimed Note 6. the Syrian soldier, with an honest pride in his native land, "better than all the waters of Israel? May I not wash in them and be clean?" No landscape is complete without the sparkle of running water in the distance to give it animation and variety. The movement of rivers and their play of light and shade endow them with a semblance of life and help to personify them. Sacred associations surround the rivers of the East, and from the riverside steps of the holy city of Benares, Hindoo devotees plunge into the sacred stream of the Ganges to seek a voluntary death that shall ensure them an eternity of happiness.

## NOTES

The details in the text are so full that few Notes are necessary.

1. The Congo Free State is a huge district of Western Africa, nine times the size of Great Britain. It is under the protection of the King of the Belgians. Its development is chiefly due to the efforts of H. M. Stanley, the distinguished African explorer. The Congo is three thousand miles long.
2. The Mississippi together with its great tributary the Missouri affords 35,000 miles of navigable water-way.
3. Roumania was separated from Turkey in 1861 and was constituted a kingdom in 1881.
4. "The Fatherland": name of the Germans for their country.
5. See Macaulay's Lays, "Horatius." Horatius Cocles, with two comrades, defended the Sublician Bridge against the Etruscan army under Lars Porsena.
6. See 2 Kings, Chap. v.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

strategic: strategy (*στρατηγία*), the art of leading an army.

devotee: a fanatic, a person blinded by superstition.

## COMMENT

This Essay is chiefly useful in illustrating, like Essay I., the orderly distribution of a large subject into its paragraphs.

# VII. DISCIPLINE

Wherever a number of persons is associated together for a common purpose, it is essential for the advantage, the comfort, and frequently the security of all, that one should rule. There must be a central authority to which all yield obedience and on which all rely for instructions and directions. From a regiment to a polo-team, from a battleship to a cricket eleven, from the state to the household, this law holds good. In all concerted action, Discipline is as necessary for comfort as it is for success. No work prospers so well or is performed with such satisfaction by those engaged in it as that which is directed and controlled by a clear head and a commanding mind. No two men are alike, and in any body of persons, some will be industrious others idle, some quick others slow, some intelligent others stupid. If these discordant elements are left to their own guidance, the result will be chaos. Discipline is not always agreeable. But even when we wince under it, we prefer it to disorder.

Necessary for success in all concerted action.

Note 1.

The maintenance of Discipline is a problem of first-rate importance to all those who are called upon to assume the charge and direction of others. In its best form it can only be partially enforced by punishments, which, in many cases, can hardly be applied at all. Among schoolmasters, for instance, it is not usually the best disciplinarians that set the most lines. The problem is from the nature of things of most importance in the case of the Naval and Military Services. It is especially important in the case of the British Services, because our Army and Navy are recruited by voluntary enlistment and not by conscription. It is rendered still more delicate by the independence of our national character, although this, perhaps, is partly counteracted by our national love of order and good government. In the British Services, it formerly depended, apart from punishments, largely upon superiority of social position. The officer was born in a rank of life to which the

Agencies for maintaining it.

Punishments.

Note 2.

Social position in the Services.

soldier and the sailor had always been brought up to show respect. At the present day, however, the value of this source of authority has greatly declined. It has been depreciated by the spread of democratic ideas, by the extension to the working-classes of the right to vote, by the diffusion of education and other levelling influences. For the future it must depend to a great extent upon superior knowledge and professional skill; and on, what never fails, the personal heroism of our officers and their readiness to expose themselves to greater danger than their men.

**Character of an ideal Disciplinarian.** The power of enforcing Discipline is difficult to analyse and almost impossible to impart. There are, however, certain features which it is easy enough to recognise as essential to the character of a strong disciplinarian. He must know his own mind. He must be clear-headed, himself; and he must be able to communicate his instructions to others in clear language. He must possess the faculty of prompt decision. He must be a master of detail. He must have insight into temper and character. He must be absolutely just.

**Note 3.** What the Rugby boy said of Dr Temple applies to all good disciplinarians. "Temple is a beast. But he is a just beast." Over and above all these, there is personality. There are some men who are naturally masterful, men who are born to command, men whom others instinctively obey. The clue to this power, which is otherwise mysterious, is perhaps to be found in the old proverb that he who would rule others must first rule himself. In other words, self-control is the supreme requisite of a sound disciplinarian. With men of such a type, the habit of command itself intensifies their qualifications for command. The power of controlling others increases by use; and men who are invariably accustomed to receive obedience acquire insensibly an atmosphere of authority which gives their lightest word a cogent force.

**Value in the Army.** The value of Discipline in warfare is familiar to every student of history. It is especially familiar to us as a nation because, with our vast and scattered empire, we

are continually engaged in wars with savage peoples. Nothing could surpass the courage of the Arabs at Omdurman ; but their undisciplined valour was fruitless against the steadiness of Lord Kitchener's trained battalions. The whole history of our conquest of India is thick with examples. At Plassey, Clive with a thousand English and two thousand disciplined Sepoys beat fifty thousand native troops. At Assaye, Wellesley, with four thousand five hundred disciplined men defeated a force more than ten times as great as his own of the fierce and valiant Mahrattas. Throughout history, from the day of Marathon to the present, Discipline has always compensated for inferiority of numbers. Note 4.

Even in civil life, the value of Discipline is constantly to be seen. A mere handful of mounted police will control and check a London mob. At a great theatre, hundreds of scene-shifters and stage-carpenters perform their complicated duties at the word or signal of command. The conductor of a great orchestra or choir must receive rigid and prompt obedience from its members. Confusion, hesitation and failure are the inevitable alternatives. Value in Civil life.

There is no department of life in which Discipline is of such vital importance as the Navy. It is more necessary in the Navy than in the Army : because the responsibility of the individual is greater with regard to the safety of the whole, and the preservation of the national property and defences. A soldier may make a mistake in the execution of an order, but it will not, in all probability, cause the destruction of a whole regiment. In the case of a ship it is different. There is an extra enemy to fight, for there is always the sea to contend with. The responsibility of the officer who is, for the time being, in command of a man-of-war, is tremendous. Not only are the lives of the whole crew temporarily in his keeping, but the ship itself is also in his hands. A battleship costs at least a million of money ; but that is not all. It takes three years to build another and replace her, and in the meantime, the national Value in the Navy.

defences are weakened to the extent of one costly and powerful unit. It is, therefore, necessary for the preservation of these valuable vessels that every order should be obeyed without a moment's hesitation or delay, and that the Discipline on board should be of the most precise and rigid sort.

The  
"Cat."

The old method of enforcing Discipline in the Navy has been long since abolished. The cat-o'-nine-tails is a thing of the past. Formerly, men were flogged for almost every description of offence. The result was what might be expected. The seaman lost his self-respect. He was miserable and degraded when at sea; he was reckless and dissipated when on shore. All this has been changed. The modern Bluejacket is a very different type of man from the old; and without parting with his traditional dash and spirit, he has acquired sobriety, steadiness and self-respect.

Note 6.

Conspicuous British examples: the *Birkenhead*.

Note 7.

One of the finest examples of Discipline in the annals of the British Services was at the loss of the steamship *Birkenhead*. This ship was conveying troops, mostly drafts of different regiments, to the Kaffir War. She was wrecked on the South African coast and sank in about twenty minutes after she struck. The troops were drawn up on deck, and they went down with the ship, every man in his place, as steady as on parade. The King of Prussia ordered the noble story to be read to every regiment in his service.

Another example: the *Camperdown*.

Note 8.

Perhaps the most memorable and melancholy instance of Discipline carried to an extreme was the sinking of the *Victoria* by the *Camperdown* in the eastern Mediterranean.<sup>8</sup> The ships were in column. The *Victoria*, which was the Admiral's flagship, was leading. The *Camperdown* came next. The Admiral, Sir George Tryon, made the signal for a manœuvre which it was impossible for the *Camperdown* to execute without ramming the leading ship. Admiral Markham, the commander of the *Camperdown*, perceived this. He was in a terrible position. He had two alternatives, and each was dreadful. He must either disobey orders and outrage the traditions of the Service, or he

must do violence to his judgment and cause a catastrophe which he perceived to be inevitable. He had but a moment for his decision; and he decided in favour of a sailor's first duty, obedience. The disaster followed; and the loss of this splendid ship with her Admiral and many of her crew was a sacrifice of unparalleled magnitude to the paramount claims of Discipline.



## NOTES

1. The use of the capital letter has been maintained throughout this Essay. Such a use is optional: though, in the opinion of the present writer, the small initial letter is preferable. But whichever method you adopt, you must be consistent. Either write "Discipline" with a capital, or "discipline" with a small initial letter, consistently throughout the Essay. Do not write "Discipline" in one sentence and "discipline" in another.
2. When we speak of the "Services," meaning the Army and Navy, or of the "Service," meaning one of these, the word is employed as a title and therefore carries a capital letter.
3. Dr Temple, the present Archbishop of Canterbury, was Head Master of Rugby from 1858 to 1869. The story quoted in the text is one which the Archbishop himself tells; and the boy's remark is said by him to be the handsomest compliment that he ever received.
4. The instances in this paragraph are given in full detail, and not as mere incidental allusions. They need no explanation. The date of Omdurman was 1898; of Plassey, 1757; of Assaye, 1803. The Mahrattas, who inhabited central India from sea to sea, were our most formidable foes in all the earlier part of our Indian history. They were a race of fighting and plundering mountaineers.
5. At the Battle of Marathon, in 490 B.C., ten thousand Athenians, or at the highest computation eleven thousand, defeated the Persian Army, which is said to have numbered a hundred thousand men. Allowing for camp-followers and for the exaggeration of partial historians, the disparity in force was, in any case, enormous. Miltiades commanded the Athenians: Datis, the Persians.
6. See Marryat's novels.
7. February 25, 1852.
8. June 1893.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

chaos, the condition of the universe when it was as yet "without form and void." Hence "utter confusion."

depreciated = lessened in value.

"The right to vote." The "suffrage" (*suffragium*, a vote) is the usual expression. But young students seldom know anything about politics or the simplest political terms.

## COMMENT

Beginners, who usually find abstract subjects peculiarly troublesome, will do well to treat them largely by means of illustrations and instances.

### VIII. THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF COMPULSORY AS CONTRASTED WITH VOLUNTARY MILITARY SERVICE

Compulsory System.  
Chief advantage: large Army.

The first and most obvious advantage of compulsory military service is that it ensures a large army. In those nations where universal conscription prevails, every able-bodied man in the country either is or has been a soldier. The whole population is trained to arms. If this training is efficiently carried out, and if, further, there is a complete and efficient system of military organisation in thorough working order, this huge fighting machine is an ideal national defence.

Disadvantages:  
(a) Cost.  
Note 1.

Still, the disadvantages of compulsory military service are heavy. In the first place, it is exceedingly costly. It is costly in two ways. Not only is the soldier maintained at the public expense; but he is, so far as useful labour is concerned, a man who might work but does not work. He is a burden to the nation, whereas he ought to be contributing his labour to the national labour-market. For instance, in Germany, there is a scarcity of agricultural labourers. This means higher wages for the few who are to be got, and consequently, impoverishment for the farmer or higher prices to the consumer of farm produce. All this time, scores of possible agricultural labourers are drilling or lounging in the nearest barrack-yard. The actual expenditure in money, therefore, huge as it is, does not represent the whole of the national loss. The expenditure, again, necessitated for material of war and other accessories is enormous, because the military force is enormous; and inasmuch as it is through conscription that the army is of such dimensions, this expenditure must be set down as due, although indirectly, to the exigencies of the system.

Disadvantage:  
(b) Useless without perfect organisation.

It must further be remembered that, without an organisation complete to the most minute detail, a huge army is no better than a small one. In fact, it is worse. It is unwieldy and cumbersome. Two

great military powers whose armies are raised by conscription came into collision in 1870. Each was reputed to have paid the utmost attention to the perfection of its military system. In the shock of war the French system shivered into fragments: the Prussian stood the strain. The master mind of Moltke organised and perfected the Prussian system once for all. It is doubtful, however, whether the French system is any better to-day than that which ignominiously collapsed in the Franco-Prussian War. Mere masses, as such, are of little use. They must be mobilised, they must be equipped, they must be moved, they must be fed. Then they may fight.

When the military force of a nation is so completely identified with the national life as in the case of those countries in which conscription prevails, a special habit of mind is apt to arise. When the nation becomes all soldiers, there is a danger that the soldiers may become the nation. Military glory and aggrandisement become of absorbing interest, and matters of deeper moment to national welfare are lost sight of amid martial pomp and pride. The defence of a nation, it is true, is the first essential of its existence, but it is not everything. Unless there is a basis of solid prosperity to support its armaments, its display of strength is but a vain defiance; and if the army causes an exhausting drain on that reserve of power, it is but a show of strength upon the surface.

Note 2.  
Disadvantage: (c) Tendency to Militarism:

and oblivion of true national interests: thus a large army may be not a sign of strength but a cause [of weakness.

From many of these objections a voluntary army is free. It interferes as little as a regular army ever can with economic laws. It does not interfere at all with division of labour. It does not take a skilful mechanic away from his work and make him into an indifferent soldier. It does not interfere at all with the liberty of the subject. A man becomes a soldier because he chooses, not because he must. He adopts the profession of arms in preference to any other trade. In an occupation into which a man is forced, he is less likely to become efficient than in one which he enters of his own accord.

Voluntary System. Advantages. Does not interfere with (a) Division of Labour, (b) Personal Liberty. Choice more likely to make a [man efficient than compulsion.

Disadvantages :  
Army is  
(a) small,

This very consideration leads us to the chief disadvantage which obviously besets a voluntary army. It is not every man that cares to be a soldier. A voluntary army is therefore small. It is probably good in quality because its men are soldiers by choice. But it is weak in quantity. Its numbers also are liable to fluctuation. In times of depression of trade, recruiting is brisk. When, however, trade is flourishing and wages high, there is always a danger that not sufficient men may be forthcoming for the defence of the Empire. This consideration again indicates another weak point in the voluntary system. In order to fill its ranks, the army must enter into competition with other trades. Its pay must be sufficiently good and the conditions of service sufficiently inviting to attract men from other occupations. Therefore a voluntary army is extremely expensive in proportion to its size. It is small and it is dear.

and (b)  
dear for its  
size.

Short  
Service  
System.

An attempt has been made in our own country to cope with the difficulty of size; and judging the system by the severe test to which it has been subjected by the Transvaal War, the attempt has been successful. The system is known as the Short Service System; and its leading feature is the creation of an ample and efficient Reserve. Soldiers are enlisted for seven years' regimental service. At the expiration of the seven years, they are drafted into the Reserve. They pass to civilian occupations, but they remain under an obligation to return to the Colours if a national emergency arises and Parliament calls them out. On the possibilities of this scheme before it was put to the test, opinions varied. It was doubted whether the men of the Reserve would rejoin their regiments in full numbers; and whether, if they did rejoin, they would still be efficient soldiers. Both questions were satisfactorily answered when the Reserves were called out for the Transvaal War. The men flocked back to the Colours with the utmost alacrity; and a few days' regular drill sufficed to revive their military knowledge and training. Our Reserve is, it is true,

The  
Reserve.

Doubts  
about the  
Reserve.

Satisfac-  
tory  
answers.

very small compared with the enormous Reserves of the continental armies. But it is probably more efficient. Our men serve seven years in the first instance with the Colours; the French and German soldiers serve only three, or less than three. Our men, therefore, get a far longer original training than the soldiers of the continental armies; and they are therefore less likely to forget their military acquirements when they pass into civil life.

Apart from its regular army, this country possesses a singular body of irregular troops which is unlike any other military force in the world. It is of formidable size, for it numbers a quarter of a million. It is drilled and disciplined, but it is not under martial law. It is armed, but it is not an army. It is the product of the last half-century; and it has never yet been used in active service. It is impossible, therefore, to do more than conjecture what its value would be in warfare. The conspicuous services, however, rendered by volunteer bodies of troops in South Africa throw a favourable light upon the question. It has been shown that good volunteers are very nearly as useful as regular soldiers. It has been shown that the element of individuality has been by no means eliminated from warfare; and that intelligence, tenacity and mobility can be successfully opposed to serried ranks and orthodox precision. It is probable that the British volunteer would prove himself at least as efficient in the field as the French or German conscript. It must never be forgotten that the volunteer gives his time and trouble to acquiring some measure of military training because he likes it and is interested in it; whereas to the conscript, in France at any rate, the period of military training is a hateful and nauseous experience of bullying, starvation, degradation and misery, entered upon with aversion and abandoned with relief.

It is only among the English and the English-speaking peoples that the voluntary principle obtains. The high sense of personal freedom and independence which distinguishes those who are born to the use of the

The Volunteer Force.

Untried as yet.

Value of Volunteers in Transvaal War.

A Volunteer as good as a French Conscript.

Note 3.

Voluntary system suitable to English-speaking peoples.

English tongue makes them prefer co-operation to compulsion. Neither in America nor in England is it conceivable that the compulsory military service of the Continent should ever be established. If, unfortunately, under the present system, the numbers of the British Army should fall below the minimum required for the security of the Empire, it might become necessary to adopt some modified form of conscription to make up the deficiency; but it is not likely that any system would be necessary which would be seriously felt to be oppressive.

Conscription  
perfect in  
theory.  
Voluntary  
System  
good  
enough in  
practice.

Conscription is, like more than one continental institution, excellent in theory. Like the decimal system of coinage, weights and measure, it is perfect upon paper. But the English and the English-speaking peoples are above all things practical. They have found the voluntary system, despite its want of completeness, work sufficiently well in the past both immediate and remote. It worked well in the war between America and Spain. It has worked well in the war between England and the Transvaal. At all events, for a nation whose geographical position or whose navy ensures virtual immunity from invasion, the hard and fast *régime* of a conscription is unnecessary, and a vigorous national life, untrammelled by an oppressive system, may be relied upon to supply the force which is necessary for the defence of the national interests.

Untrammelled  
national  
life will  
protect  
national  
interests.

### NOTES

1. Compare Essay "Si vis Pacem, para bellum," paragraph 2.
2. General Von Moltke was the re-organiser of the Prussian Army from 1858 onwards. The conquest of France by Germany in the Franco-Prussian War was due to his strategical skill and the excellence of his preparations.
3. See Lionel Declé's "Trooper 3809": a terrible revelation of the condition of the French Army.

### WORDS AND PHRASES

**Mobilised.** Mobilisation is the technical term for bringing troops together to their *depôts* and headquarters, that is, for assembling an army. It is an especially important feature of modern military organisation on account of the enormous numbers of Reservists who have passed into civilian life and away from the immediate supervision of the military authorities. All these men have to be brought back to their respective centres, furnished with their accoutrements and kit, and allotted their stations. On the celerity and perfection with which this process is carried out, depends the readiness of an army to take the field.

**economic laws** = the natural laws which control trade, labour, capital and the production and circulation of commodities.

**eliminate** = to strike out.

### COMMENT

Some knowledge of the contemporary military systems of Europe is necessary for this Essay, the most instructive and accessible being those of France and Germany in contrast with our own.



## IX. THE JUBILEE OF 1897

Other long  
Reigns in  
English  
History.      On Tuesday, the twenty-second of June 1897, the fact that the Queen of England had reigned full sixty years was celebrated in every portion of Her Majesty's dominions, that is, in every portion of the habitable globe. Queen Victoria's reign is the longest in the annals of English history. Others of Her Majesty's predecessors have occupied the throne for long periods. Henry the Third reigned for fifty-six years; Edward the Third for fifty; George the Third for fifty-nine.

Their un-  
fortunate  
character.      However closely the reigns of other monarchs may approach that of Queen Victoria in point of duration, there is none that can compare with it in point of prosperity. Long reigns indeed are rarely fortunate. Henry the Third lived to find his power usurped by De Montfort and the barons, and recovered only by the ordeal of civil war. Edward the Third was condemned to watch his hard-won conquests in France slipping from his enfeebled grasp as he sank into doting and ignoble old age. The narrow obstinacy of George the Third and the stupidity of short-sighted ministers cost England the magnificent appanage of her American colonies; and but for that depressing record of stubbornness and infatuation there would be sixty million Englishmen the more to-day. The fifty-nine years, moreover, of this King's reign are but a paper record, diminished by periods of insanity, and closing amid the distractions of a world convulsed with the turmoil of the Napoleonic era and the sorrows of a country grieving for the loss of precious lives and groaning under the weight of intolerable burdens.

The  
longest  
Reign in  
European  
History :  
its melan-  
choly  
close      One reign there has been in the history of Europe which actually exceeds that of Queen Victoria in length. But the seventy-two years of Louis the Fourteenth, glorious as was their early record, closed in profound gloom. For sixty years the French had never lost a battle. Blenheim broke the spell. After Marlborough's tremendous victory, the Spanish Succession

War was one long record of disaster for France; of defeat abroad, aggravated by starvation and rebellion at home. The eldest son, the eldest grandson of the Grand Monarque were both dead before him; and the old man spent his closing years in striving to impart to the little heedless child, his great-grandson, who was to occupy his throne, some simple lessons, drawn from the terrible stores of his own experience, in the duties and responsibilities of a king. The world knows too well the sequel.

Note 1.

With the long reign of Victoria, it is altogether different. She found her country great. She leaves it greater. In every quarter of the globe enormous acquisitions of territory have been made during the last sixty years. A portion of India was, at the Queen's accession, subject to an English company.<sup>2</sup> Now, the whole of that great empire is under either the full authority or the feudal suzerainty of the Queen-Empress; and three hundred millions of dark-skinned subjects enjoy the wise beneficence and strong order of her sway. From penal settlements and convict stations, the colonies of Australia have developed into prosperous and progressive communities. The heterogeneous elements of which British North America was composed have been consolidated into the vast Dominion of Canada. In South Africa an immense territory has been added to the possessions of the Crown; in Egypt, English influence is supreme. All over the world, valuable outlets have been secured for the expansion of the Anglo-Saxon race. To-day, the British Empire is forty-three times that of Germany, forty-four times that of France; and on the map of both hemispheres one-fifth of the total surface of the globe is coloured in British red.

Contrast the Reign of Victoria. Expansion of the Empire by land.

Note 2.

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Note 4.  
Note 5.

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Note 6.

Such is the progress during the Victorian era of our empire on the land. On the sea, we have neither gained nor lost. We had nothing to gain. The empire of the sea was ours when the Queen came to the throne. It is ours still. The thirty miles of ships which, without withdrawing a single vessel from our Mediter-

Retention of the sovereignty of the sea.

- Note 7. ranean or Atlantic or Pacific squadrons, flew the white ensign on the Saturday of the Jubilee week at Spithead, those three hundred and sixty-five men-of-war and torpedo-vessels which were inspected by the Heir to the Throne, apart from the hundred and forty doing duty in every quarter of the world, this stupendous fleet shows that we have not relaxed our grip one iota upon our dominion of the ocean. Nelson is dead: the *Victory* is obsolete: but a new fleet is here, the best, as always, in the whole world: and the spirit of the Service burns as brightly now as when Hawke
- Note 8. fought his battle in the storm off Quiberon, or the
- Note 9. masts of the *Orient* went skywards in Aboukir Bay.
- Progress of the Army. If the conditions of naval warfare have been revolutionised, if mast and sail have been superseded by funnel and screw, if oak has given place to iron and steel, the sister Service also has experienced no small change. Not only has the breech-loader superseded the muzzle-loader, but the breech-loader itself has developed into the magazine-rifle. Machine guns now shoot like whole battalions. The range and precision of artillery have been enormously increased. The constitution of the
- Note 10. Army itself has been altered. Purchase has been abolished; officers obtain their commissions, by open
- Note 11. competition; the linked battalion and short service systems have been established; the reserve has been
- Note 12. created; an enormous volunteer force has been raised, developed and brought to a high stage of military efficiency: new departments have been added to the Army, its numbers have been increased, its training has been improved.
- Note 13. Though the naval and military aspects of the Jubilee have, as is natural, been most prominent, there are other no less striking features of the progress of the last sixty years which the anniversary suggests to our thoughts. Our railway, postal and telegraph systems have been developed and perfected during Queen Victoria's reign. Locomotion, both by sea and by land, has been brought to a speed and facility undreamt of in the Queen's childhood. The most
- Progress in Science.

distant parts of her dominions have been put in touch with each other by submarine cables. Towns that were dimly lit with oil in the first year of her reign now sparkle with electric light. The laws of sanitation have been studied and applied. The agonies of surgical operations have been assuaged by the discovery of anaesthetics. Cleanliness and sobriety have become generally diffused; and education has been made compulsory, gratuitous and universal.

Such are some of the reflections which might well occur to a thoughtful subject of Her Majesty on the celebration of her Diamond Jubilee. The most striking feature of this high festival has yet to be alluded to. On the anniversary of her accession, the Queen drove through the streets of her capital to see her people and receive their congratulations. Never, in the whole history of the world, had monarch such an escort. From every quarter of the globe her armed attendants came. No empire in the annals of mankind has ever been worthy to be so much as compared with the British Empire, save that of Rome alone. Rome had her processions too. But England has subjects where Rome had only slaves; and the unexampled spectacle has been exhibited to mankind of Canadian and Hindoo, Chinese and New Zealander, Negro and Rhodesian, Hausa and Knightsbridge Lifeguardsman, forming part of one military force, obeying one word of command, and owning allegiance to one Sovereign. The sun may be near to setting on the Reign of Victoria. Its dying beams could fall upon no nobler scene than this.

The Jubilee Procession: its various elements.

Note 14. Contrast with a Roman triumph.

## NOTES

1. Louis XV., one of the most worthless kings that ever reigned.
2. The possessions of the East India Company, which was founded by Charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600, were transferred to the Crown in 1858, after the Indian Mutiny in 1857.

The Queen assumed the title of Empress of India in 1877.

3. In 1787 began the settlement of Australia. A cargo of criminals was shipped to New South Wales and a convict settlement was established at Botany Bay.

In 1835, the European population of Australia was only 80,000. In 1851, it was 350,000. The discovery of the gold-fields in that year caused an enormous immigration. The population is now upwards of 3,000,000.

Each of the five divisions of Australia has been constituted a Colony and has received a constitution during this reign.

4. The confederation of all the British North American provinces, with the solitary exception of Newfoundland, took place in 1867-71.
5. Cape Colony, after conquest, restoration to the Dutch, and re-conquest, became permanently a British possession in 1814. All the rest of our South African possessions, however, have been acquired during the Queen's reign. Natal was annexed in 1845: Basutoland in 1871. Zululand was conquered in 1879. In 1889, Rhodesia, a territory  $8\frac{1}{2}$  times the size of Great Britain was assigned by Charter, like India by Queen Elizabeth in 1600, to the British South African Company, which is popularly known as "The Chartered Company."

Where the British acquisitions of territory in South Africa will stop may, at the moment of writing (January 1900), be conjectured, but is not yet definitely settled.

6. Sir Howard Vincent's "Through the British Empire in Ten Minutes": price threepence: a map and pamphlet which ought to be possessed by every British patriot.

7. The white ensign is the flag of Her Majesty's Navy, and of the Royal Yacht Clubs.
8. In 1759, the "Year of Triumph," during the Seven Years' War, Admiral Hawke, in a gale, amid the shoals of Quiberon Bay, defeated the Brest fleet; and thereby averted the danger of a French invasion of England.
9. The Battle of the Nile, or Aboukir Bay, was fought in 1798. It was the greatest naval victory in history. Nelson completely annihilated the French fleet. About ten at night, the French flag-ship, *L'Orient*, caught fire and blew up with a terrific explosion.
10. Under the Purchase System, officers bought their Commissions and their steps. An ensigncy or cornetcy usually cost about £450. The system was abolished in 1871.
11. The Short Service System, under which soldiers enlist for seven years with the colours and then pass into the Reserve, was established by Mr Childers in 1881.
12. The present Volunteer Force dates from 1859.
13. This paragraph is a condensation of the whole Essay "Peace hath her Victories no less renowned than War." See Sketch of that Essay.
14. The words in the text, which were written in 1897, have since received remarkable confirmation. The Transvaal War has proved that the Jubilee procession was no empty show. The appearance of the Colonial troops in the Queen's retinue indicated, what now has been emphatically demonstrated in fact, the loyalty of the Colonies to the Mother Country and their determination to serve the Empire when the occasion should arise.

No spectacle could well be more imposing to the eye than was a Roman triumph. The victorious general to whom this supreme honour had been decreed, entered the flower-decked city in a chariot drawn by four horses: preceded by the captives he had taken in war and followed by his troops. These processions had their symbolical significance. The Roman Empire was founded upon conquest. The British Empire is founded, partly upon conquest, but mainly upon colonisation; and even the countries which she conquers have a tendency,

of which Canada is a notable example, to become ultimately colonies. But Rome never had a colony, in the modern sense, at all. She had the word ; but not the thing. *Colonia* meant merely a fortified military post in a conquered country. Thus the provinces of Rome were her slaves, whereas the colonies of Great Britain are her children. The Roman provincials when they fought in the Roman armies were commandeered ; but the British colonials fight as freemen on behalf of the great inheritance of liberty, territory and renown which is common to all subjects of the Empire.

- \* An empire founded, as most great empires have been founded, upon conquest only, is called, in the language of political science, inorganic, because there are parts of it which have no real life at all, but are like decayed branches on a tree ; whereas in an empire that has grown to its strength and size by the process of colonisation, the life of the people circulates in every part, and the empire is rightly styled organic. It is all the difference between a big bloated man whose feet are crippled and whose hands are paralysed ; and an active, energetic man whose extremities may be cold or may be hot but are tingling in any case with vigorous vitality.

#### WORDS AND PHRASES

appanage = something belonging to.

heterogeneous = composed of dissimilar parts.

#### COMMENT

An acquaintance with the history of the Queen's reign is necessary for this Essay. Justin M'Carthy's "History of our Times," a very readable book, may be recommended for the purpose.

X. \*INFLUENCE OF GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND CLIMATE UPON NATIONAL CHARACTER

The character of a people which is obliged continually to reckon with so potent a force as the sea will obviously be different from that of dwellers inland who are under no such necessity and have no such difficult and dangerous element to habitually contend against ; while, again, the character of those who dwell on great plains will also be different from the character of those who are born and bred among the perils and hardships of mountain peaks and precipices. Again a pleasant climate, genial weather and gradual changes of temperature make life easy ; whereas frequent variations, extremes of heat and cold, and abrupt transitions from one to the other, make life difficult ; and it is obviously certain that the first set of conditions will generate a national character of a different sort from that produced by the second. Caused and created in the first instance by physical conditions and the influence of environment, national character is strengthened by transmission from one generation to another, until, even when the conditions which originally generated it have ceased to be actively operative, it becomes the dominant clue to national manners, morals, and methods of policy and action.

National Character must obviously be affected by Geographical Position,

and by Climate.

The effect is permanent. Note 1.

Islanders are brought continually in contact with the sea ; and the national character of the islander, which has, of course, a special interest for us who are English, is that of the sailor. It must be remembered that we speak of a sailor and not of a stoker. It was in the days of sailing-vessels that our national character was formed ; not in the short half-century that has elapsed since steam-ships have come into general use. The effects of the sea upon character are strongly marked. The sailor must be patient ; for he is dealing with elements beyond human power to coerce or control. He cannot make the wind blow when he is becalmed or the waves subside when he is caught in a storm.

The Islander : i.e. the Sailor.

Note 2.



He must be prompt and alert ; for it is only by taking advantage of circumstances that he can cope with his unsleeping enemy. He must be persevering ; for it is frequently only dogged effort that saves him from disaster. He must be handy and practical ; for he is constantly thrown on his own resources. He must be fearless ; for he is always fighting the forces of Nature. Finally, through the consciousness of constant successful effort and the recollection of many perils manfully dealt with and successfully combated, he becomes confident, masterful, resolute and self-reliant.

The Sailor develops into an Explorer, a Trader, a Colonist. These qualities, once created by the conditions of his existence, lead to others. Habituated to difficulty and danger, he comes to love the excitement of them. The fighting instinct which is innate in mankind, developed by his constant warfare with the elements, causes him to challenge peril and to court adventure. He becomes an explorer. He seeks unknown lands ; and he naturally barter with the natives, exchanging

Note 3. his own manufactured goods for their natural products, their pearls or skins or ivory. The voyage is profitable ; it is repeated. A trade is established. To carry on this trade, he leaves an agent on the spot. Thus a colony is started. Or in the course of his travels he sees a land more desirable than his own, and he settles there himself and brings others with him. Here again there is the beginning of a colony. Thus it is that, in the ancient world the Greeks, in the modern world the English, but not the French or the Germans, have each been a commercial and colonising nation.

The Dweller Inland and on Plains. The character of the dwellers in the interior of great continents has no such strongly-marked features. In early times, they are mostly engaged in farming ; they are absorbed in the care of their cattle and the cultivation of their crops ; they are under no temptation to lead a roving life. Like the rotation of the seasons on which they depend, their existence is regular, monotonous, secure and circumscribed. A quiet routine of plodding industry is their royal road to a happy and prosperous life. There is nothing to induce roving

propensities or a desire of adventure. When they congregate in towns for purposes of manufacture or business the same law holds good. Regularity of life is their way to success; and they become orderly, business-like and punctual, but narrow-minded and absorbed in the petty details of the little world in which they live.

To every community, the question of defence is one of vital importance. The islander possesses a natural frontier, and so long as he protects it by a powerful Navy, he is safe. But the dweller inland, even if he has the advantage of a river or a mountain chain, requires troops to defend the fords, the bridges and the passes, and to man fortified posts where no such natural obstacles exist. Thus the great nations of the Continent have to maintain enormous land forces; and military ideas and modes of thought become generally prevalent.

The question of Defence: as it appears to the Islander and the Dweller Inland.

The character of the mountaineer, like that of the islander, possesses strongly-marked features. To ascend a mountain requires courage and strength of will; to descend it requires, above all things, caution, for a slip means death. Self-reliance and independence are even more necessary to the mountaineer than to the sailor, for he is more lonely. He is habitually thrown upon his own unaided resources. Not only must he be active, bold and careful; he must be temperate and frugal, for food is often difficult to get. Living as he does among grim and barren solitudes, he becomes a man of grave and serious mind, often strongly tinged with superstition. Moreover, men who are born and bred among mountains become strongly attached to them, for the mountains have a kind of personality and individuality, and are like old friends. This feeling, combined with the independence of temper due to ordinary surroundings and daily life, produces a singularly vigorous spirit of patriotism and a stern determination to maintain national independence and to preserve national institutions intact. In our own islands, the survival of the national language among the mountaineers of Wales, the survival of clan feelings and the clan dress among the Highlanders of Scotland, despite the efforts of

The Mountaineer.

Note 4.

Government to discourage or suppress them, are instances of this resolute independence.

Influence  
of Climate.  
i. Un-  
settled—  
e.g. British.

The influence of Climate is no less strong than that of Geographical Position. The British Empire, the greatest phenomenon of the kind in the history of the world and therefore the most worthy of study, is a mixture of colonisation and conquest. If it is true that on the British Empire the sun never sets, it is no less true that on some parts of it the sun scarcely ever shines; while on the major portion of that vast fabric, it shines with somewhat superfluous energy. Every variety of climatic conditions, extremes of heat and extremes of cold, are comprised within its area. It has been gained and it continues to be administered by men whose own variable and inconstant climate habituates them to changes of every description and qualifies them to colonise or conquer alike in Canada and India, in the Crimea and the Soudan. London has its heat like Bombay, its blizzard like New York, its fog like Newfoundland. The abrupt changes of the weather, at which it is the national custom to grumble, keep men active and alert, and promote the national love of manly exercises.

Note 5.

But in a warm and settled climate, where there are many hours in the day when it is too hot to work, the inhabitants become enervated and indisposed for active exertion. Life is easy. The whole environment is conducive to indolence and love of pleasure. The vices that spring from inactivity have a fertile field in which to flourish. On the other hand, these people are certainly less addicted to the vice of intemperance than most of the nations which live under rigorous climatic conditions. Warm countries, again, are often the home of the arts, which flourish among men accustomed to bright sunshine, blue skies, easy life and plenty of leisure. Raphael and Titian, the greatest painters in the world, were Italians. Velasquez and Murillo were Spaniards. The art of statuary reached its perfection in ancient Greece. Italy is the traditional home of music and the birthplace of the opera. On the whole, then,

Promotes  
the Arts.

## ESSAY ON NATIONAL CHARACTER III

if we try to hold the balance fairly, we shall decide that an arduous climate is conducive to manly effort and robust qualities of mind and body, while a pleasant climate is conducive to all that promotes the graces and refined enjoyments of life.

## NOTES

1. The diction of the first paragraph is somewhat inflated. The last sentence of it, in particular, should not be attempted by a novice. In fact, the whole paragraph, which is merely introductory, may quite well be omitted altogether.
2. Notice from "The effects of the sea . . ." to the end of the paragraph. Study the method. It is very simple, and you will find it useful.
3. ". . . their natural products, their pearls or skins or ivory." The pearls, the skins, the ivory are quoted as specific natural products. "Natural products" is a very comprehensive phrase; and the mention of three particular typical specimens gives the reader pegs to hang his thoughts upon.
4. The Welsh language has survived to the present day despite the subjugation of the country six hundred years ago and the introduction of English as the official language.  
In Scotland, after the suppression of the Rebellion of '45, wearing the kilt was made a penal offence, and was punished by transportation for the second offence.
5. Instances of use of the Particular for the General.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

Abrupt transitions = quick changes.

By physical conditions—*i.e.* by the nature of the country, whether sea-girt, flat or mountainous, and by the nature of the climate, whether hot or cold, settled or unsettled.

Environment: a useful word, now frequently employed, which is equivalent to "surroundings."

Dominant clue to = explanation of.

Habituated = accustomed.

Innate in = natural to, born in.

To barter = to exchange one commodity for another commodity, but not for money. Barter is the first and most primitive stage of trade.

Natural products = anything got from forests, streams,  
the sea, the soil or animals.

Rotation = a coming round regularly, regular succe-  
sion (Lat. *rota* = a wheel).

Royal road = shortest and quickest road.

Intact = untouched, unharmed.

Enervated = without strength or force.

#### COMMENT

After a preliminary hint or two, it is not difficult to think out this subject. The propositions are self-evident and the deductions follow easily, if you think carefully and slowly.

\* XI. THE VALUE OF PHYSIQUE IN  
MODERN LIFE

Genesis of the pre-valent impression of a decline in the value of physique in modern life.      Because we see that many things are to-day done by mechanical means which were formerly done by muscular power, because we watch a donkey-engine or a steam-crane performing work which formerly demanded the physical strength of men, because we travel by steam or electricity and meet traction-engines and motor-cars on the high road, because our clothing was woven in a factory and the wheat for our bread was raised from a field broken up by a steam plough and converted into flour in a steam mill, because the very word "manufacture" has entirely parted with its original signification and come to mean the exact opposite of making by hand, we are apt to draw the inference that, under the *régime* of modern science and civilisation, muscle has been generally superseded by machinery. We see, moreover, that there are large numbers of professional men, business men and skilled artisans, who carry on their avocations with entire success without ever having occasion for the employment of muscular power, except for purposes of recreation, from one year's end to another. With facts like these constantly before our eyes, it is no wonder that we become subject to an impression, frequently expressed in some hasty generalisation, of a decline in the value of physique in modern life.

The impression is true, to an extent, of muscular strength : but not true of power of endurance.      So far as this impression relates to muscular strength alone, it is, though only to a limited extent, well-founded. But strength is of two kinds. There is, in the first place, muscular strength ; and there is, in the second place, power of endurance. If civilisation has diminished the demand for the first, it has by no means diminished, it has certainly increased, the demand for the second.

In warfare, muscular strength is less important than      In no case is this fact more clearly illustrated than in warfare. When a man fought in heavy armour and with heavy weapons, great muscular strength was indispensable. The weight of a feudal knight's armour was prodigious. So was that of his arms : his lance, his

double-edged sword, his battle-axe, his mace. But in modern cavalry, speed is the first essential, and lightness in arms and accoutrements is the chief desideratum for the attainment of that end. The yeoman archer who won the fights of the fourteenth century had need to be a man of stalwart frame to draw his huge long-bow; but not much muscular strength is necessary to carry or to steady a Lee-Metford rifle. Gun-drill on Nelson's *Victory* was a very different thing from the manipulation of a 4.7-inch gun on a modern man-of-war. Intelligent management of complicated mechanism, alertness of mind, readiness of resource, combined with steadiness of hand and eye, are of primary importance; and muscular strength is rather a useful accessory than an indispensable requisite. Hand-to-hand fighting, where muscular power tells best, is less frequent in modern warfare than formerly; and even when troops meet each other at close quarters, a skilful thrust is of more value than a slashing blow.

Still, there are many other things in warfare besides the actual fighting. Civilisation has improved the range and accuracy of fire. But it has not superseded the necessity of horses and mules to drag guns and waggons, or removed the possibility of the destruction of these animals; nor can it secure that roads will be available into which the wheels of heavy carriages will not sink in wet weather or after much traffic; nor can mechanical means get guns or men on to the tops of hills or into other important and difficult positions. The blue-jackets who fire the machine-gun require only steadiness and nerve; but the blue-jackets who are harnessed to the rope by which it is run into position have need to be men of muscle. In fatigue-duties, in loading heavy weights, in extricating foundered vehicles, in replacing dismounted guns, in countless duties apart from the volley or the charge, muscular strength is needed now as much as ever. It is needed now as much as ever, but for somewhat different purposes.

Whatever may be the case with regard to power of muscle, there can be no doubt about the increased im-

skill, so far  
as actual  
fighting  
goes ;

but more  
important  
than ever  
in count-  
less other  
operations  
of war.

Power of  
endurance  
in warfare:



portance at the present day of power of endurance. The chief problem in modern warfare, on the whole, is the forced march. To cover a great distance in the shortest possible time and to arrive in fresh condition is the most important factor of success in a modern campaign. To be able to bear hot days and cold nights, sandstorms and heavy rains, fever and fatigue, long marches and short commons, want of food and want of rest, is what is wanted in a soldier just as much as skill and courage in the field. A notable example of a forced march, carefully planned and skilfully executed, was the march of Lord Roberts from Cabul to Candahar. The distance was three hundred miles as the crow flies; the country was difficult; the time occupied was three weeks; and the troops fought and won their battle on the day after their arrival. It is for men who are equal to the performance of feats like this that modern warfare imperatively calls. The famous Prussian corps of giants would cut but a sorry figure in comparison with a battalion of lean and wiry Ghoorkas.

the forced  
march.

Note 1.

Note 2.

Muscular  
strength in  
civil life.

Occupations where  
it is essential.

In civil life there is an enormous number of persons to whom muscular strength is of no practical importance save in connection with health or recreation. In the occupations of the bulk of the middle classes it plays no necessary part. So far as earning a livelihood is concerned, it is not needed by the members of the learned professions, nor by merchants or shopkeepers. The brain is the all-important agent of success, and the body is only important so far as the brain forms part of it and therefore shares in the health of the whole. Nor is this true only of the middle classes. Among the labouring classes also, an enormous amount of work is done by skilled mechanics who need no strength of limb. Still, there is a large number of occupations where muscular strength is needed and must always be needed as much as ever. The work of the collier, the navvy, the quarryman: of the stvedore and the railway porter: of the thousands of men who man our sailing vessels and our fishing fleets, must always require men of great muscular power. In our own country, where there exists an

especial repugnance to anything that savours of military government, civil order is preserved by a body of men who have no weapons to rely on except a short stick and a strong arm. No organised force, civil or military, in the world, is composed of men whose bodily strength is equal to that of the British police. The excellence of their physique has a definite moral value in the preservation of civil tranquillity. The good-humoured forbearance of a man who has full confidence in his own muscular power is a useful trait in a guardian of the peace; and elements of disorder which, in the presence or under the threat of military weapons, might become dramatic, are reduced to absurdity. Note 3.

But the professional classes, the trading classes, the skilled artisans, to whom it has been said above muscular strength is a negligible quantity, have need of power of endurance in modern life to an unprecedented extent. Civilisation has immensely increased the intensity of the struggle for existence. The incessant strain that is thrown upon the nervous system, the exhausting demands that are made relentlessly upon the brain, can only be supported by those whose physical stamina is of tough fibre. Success in modern life can only be achieved and maintained by indefatigable vigilance and unintermittent mental activity. To many men whose employment lies in great cities, the out-door exercise which was a matter of course to their ancestors is actually a rare and expensive minor luxury. The very physical exertion which is a weariness to the peasant would be to them a recreation. The hearty appetite, the sound sleep of the toiler in the fields are luxuries which they have to obtain by artificial means. The demands made by the telephone, the telegraph, the penny post, upon the nervous system: the oppression of foul atmosphere and fog upon the throat and lungs: the agitation of constant hurry: the wear and tear of a life that is passed upon the pavement, combine to put a severe tension upon the constitution of the city man. The barrister returns from a day spent in the vitiated air of the law-courts to an evening of strenuous preparation for

Power of endurance in civil life —skilled artisans—city men—the professional classes—competitive examinations.

the next day's work. During assizes, if he is a man with a considerable practice, he must, for a week or more on end, dispense with much of his natural sleep and almost all exercise; and the nervous power which ought to assimilate food and sustain thereby his bodily power has to be employed for other objects. The doctor must be ready to respond to the call of duty at any hour in the twenty-four. Success in the higher classes of examinations, on which many of the best prizes in modern life depend, is not to be attained by power of brain alone, but only by power of brain sustained by power of physical endurance.

Power of  
endurance  
in other  
sedentary  
occupa-  
tions.

Nor is the necessity for power of endurance limited to the professional classes. It extends to all those whose occupations involve long hours of monotonous fatigue without the exhilaration of active exercise: to signalmen, railway guards, tramcar conductors, omnibus drivers, clerks, shop-assistants and the like. All these persons require power of endurance to enable them to sustain the systematic violation of the laws of health which is forced upon them by the conditions of their existence.

Reason  
why neces-  
sity of this  
kind of  
physique  
escapes us.

The fact is that the paramount necessity of physique in modern life escapes us because the strength that is required is of a kind whose manifestations cannot be easily seen or tested. We can see Sandow lift a heavy weight. But when a man steps out of a railway-carriage, we cannot apprehend by our senses the amount of fatigue which he has experienced in a long journey. Every one can see and comprehend a feat of muscular power; but a feat of physical endurance is not equally obvious. The one is active: the other is passive. The one does: the other endures. The one attacks: the other repels. The advantage, from the point of view of what is striking and impressive, lies with the initiative. The onslaught of the sea is more dramatic than the resistance of the sand. Muscular power, with its frequent accessories of fresh complexion, symmetry of body, balance of proportions and ease of movement, is a thing which strikes and pleases everyone.

Power of endurance, on the other hand, is often found in association with a pale or sallow skin and a lean and wiry frame, without any of the outward and attractive signs of fine physique.

To a considerable extent, the standard of physical fitness exacted from candidates for the Army and other public examinations is an indication of the general physical requirements of modern life. The finest biceps in the world will not enable a candidate for the Army or the Indian Civil Service to satisfy the doctor if his heart is weak or his sight defective. Nothing is more absurd, it may be said in passing, than an idea rather generally prevalent, that the physique of the officers of the Army has deteriorated under the examination system. The reverse is the case. There are quite as many big strong men in the Army now as ever there were. If there were not, it would make no difference. A little man is just as useful as a big man. The big man's muscle may be valuable on occasions, but it is not the first essential. A tough and wiry little man, active and with nothing superfluous about him, ready to go anywhere and do anything at a moment's notice, is more useful than a heavy giant. Finally, the very fact that medical examinations exist in conjunction with the competition for appointments in the public service is itself a decisive proof of the value of physique in modern life.

What modern conditions of existence demand before all things is a sound mind in a sound body. Muscle is as useless without mind as is mind unsupported by power of endurance. Mind is essential: power of endurance is essential: muscular strength is a most valuable auxiliary.

Value of physique shown by the physical qualifications exacted from candidates for the Army and other competitive examinations.

Summary of the relative importance of mind, muscular strength, and power of endurance.  
Note 4.

## NOTES

1. The famous march of Lord Roberts from Cabul to Candahar took place in 1880. It lasted from August 9 to August 31. On the 1st of September, Roberts defeated the Afghans at Mazra, and the war was virtually at an end.
2. Frederick William the First, of Prussia, the eccentric father of Frederick the Great, had a favourite regiment of Guards, consisting of men of enormous stature. Rigidly economical in all other forms of expenditure, he yet spent large sums in bounties to big recruits; and the most certain method for a foreign prince to win his favour was to send him the present of a few tall men. He never exposed his favourite *corps d'élite* to the hazards of actual warfare, but he spent hours every day in drilling and inspecting them. The very first act of Frederick the Great, on his accession in 1740, was to disband these overgrown warriors.
3. The policeman carries no arms except a thick staff.
4. The temptation to quote Latin in this concluding paragraph was almost irresistible. Two of the ideas therein contained have been expressed in Latin with exquisite aptness. The "sound mind in a sound body" is, of course, the well-known "*Mens sana in corpore sano*"; while "muscle is useless without mind" would be well illustrated by "*Vis consilii expers ruit mole sua*." These quotations would, of course, be perfectly admissible. But the present writer has the greatest possible dislike to that kind of Essay which is a thing of shreds and patches, made up of other men's thoughts expressed in other men's languages. He has no liking for old wine in new bottles. Classical quotations have, in the passage of centuries, become somewhat vapid. Moreover, a modern Parliamentary orator who should seek to heighten the effect of his rhetoric by an elegant excerpt from his Horace would find only a partly appreciative audience in an assembly of gentlemen, many of whom have been educated on the modern

side of their public schools. In written prose, above all, where the first requisite is intelligibility, quotations from the Classics should be eschewed, or only resorted to under pressure of extreme necessity.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

stevedore, one whose occupation is to load or unload ships.

assimilate = to absorb, digest and incorporate into the system.

## COMMENT

The subject demands some experience and observation of practical life. It is rather a subject for a man of middle age than for a boy: a fact, however, which has not prevented it from being set for Sandhurst.

\* XII. THE SWORD, THE TONGUE, THE PEN,  
AS INSTRUMENTS OF GOVERNMENT

Note 1.  
At first  
sight, the  
Sword  
seems  
strongest.

Of these three agencies, the sword would probably, to a hasty and superficial observer, appear to be the strongest. Brute force makes a more effective and more easily apprehended show of strength than does moral force. Orator and journalist would have but little chance, so it seems, against a regiment of soldiers and a Maxim gun. Or if in modern times, civilisation has expanded the sphere and strengthened the action of speech and writing, at all events in ancient times and among primitive peoples, speech and such writing as there might be would have no chance of competing with the sword.

Not cor-  
rect, even  
in ancient  
times.

This is a complete fallacy. Even in the earliest times, before the influence of the pen had come into existence at all, speech was a force that ranked with strength and valour. Even in Homer, Ulysses takes his place with Achilles and Agamemnon as among the most formidable of the Greeks; and the tongue of the "wily-minded orator" is as much an object of dread to his foes as the sword-arm of the warrior.

Sword  
really  
weakest.

In reality, the sword is the weakest of the three. Russia is ruled by the sword. Good government involves security, order, freedom, contentment, prosperity. Yet the Czar, for all his eight hundred thousand soldiers, is never safe. Under this system, there is order; but there is neither freedom nor contentment nor prosperity. Turkey is ruled by the sword. In Turkey, there is not a single one of the elements of good government; there is neither security nor order nor freedom nor contentment nor prosperity; the Sultan only ventures once or twice a year outside his own grounds; outrage and rebellion are chronic; and the empire itself is crumbling away bit by bit. For a few years Cromwell ruled England by the sword; but the people chafed in a fever of discontent, and the tyrant was never for a moment free from the fear and danger

of assassination. The sword, again, with however much determination it may be used, is powerless in the long run against moral forces, such as religious devotion or public opinion. The swords of Alva and a hundred thousand men could not extirpate Protestantism from the Netherlands. A still more notable example is to be found in the origin and spread of Christianity itself. The religious devotion of an obscure and despised sect defied the arms of the Roman Empire; and, if we pass on a thousand years, we find the head of that very sect ranking as the equal or superior of the successor of the Roman Emperors himself, and wielding the tremendous power of the mediaeval Papacy.

Moral  
force  
stronger  
than physi-  
cal force.

The problem of government is too complex to be solved by so simple an expedient as sheer force. The satisfaction and acquiescence of the governed are as essential to stable government as the maintenance of the governing authority. If authority is based upon what is repulsive to the public opinion of the community, it is bound sooner or later to collapse. Coercion is a plausible but never a satisfactory or a permanent method of government. Great empires are usually acquired for the most part by the sword, but they can never endure if they continue to be administered by the sword. The sword is for use without, not within, an empire. It is legitimately employed in the service of the nation for defence against a foreign foe. It may even be legitimately employed on occasion for the suppression of the forces of crime and disorder at home. That is the limit of its use. It is repugnant to the conscience of mankind that a government should employ against its own subjects a weapon which it ought only to employ against their enemies. A military tyranny is an unnatural form of government, and however brilliant its temporary prestige may be, it carries within it the canker of inevitable decay.

Good  
govern-  
ment im-  
possible  
under the  
Sword.

Far more powerful than the word of command is the word of persuasion. Men obey the first because they must; they obey the second because they choose. Reluctant obedience is not for a moment to be com-

Persua-  
sion: its  
power.



pared to voluntary obedience. The unanimous will of thousands is a force of prodigious power, and this power can only be created, stimulated, controlled and directed by the spoken or the written word. The orator and the writer are the real governors of the people. They acquire the control and direction of men's thoughts, and the actions follow.

Power of  
speech at  
the present  
day.

Oratory has always been a great power in all times and among all nations. In none has it been greater than in our own time and in our own country, which is emphatically the country of free speech. In Parliament, the utterances of great politicians act directly upon the government of the country. Outside Parliament, if there is an abuse in the existing system, it is freely exposed, discussed and denounced on public platforms, until an irresistible pressure of public opinion is aroused which leads to the necessary reform. Moreover the power of the tongue has been enhanced a hundred-fold by its alliance with the pen. A man speaks not now only to his immediate audience. The physical power of the human voice is limited, and on a given occasion a man can but speak to those whom his voice can reach. Now, the Press takes charge of his speech; reporters copy down his words; the daily papers transmit his utterances to an audience which is limited only by the ability to read. Nor is that audience confined to his own country or to his own age. Every capital in Europe ponders the statesman's words, and they remain fixed and recorded for the benefit of future generations.

Note 2.  
18th cen-  
tury  
orators had  
smaller  
audience  
but less  
responsi-  
bility.

The great orators of the eighteenth century were less fortunate. Their masterpieces have almost all vanished, and only the tradition of them survives. Except in the case of Burke, who was a writer on the philosophy of politics as well as an orator, the eloquence of these great masters of the art of speech is lost to us for ever. The orators of to-day have a vastly wider sphere. They have also, it must not be forgotten, a vastly wider responsibility.

19th cen-  
tury

What oratory has gained in area, it has lost in intensity. When a man knows that his every utterance will not

only be at once subjected to the severe or hostile strictures of countless contemporary critics, but will also be imperishably recorded in print to his honour or his confusion, he is bound to weigh his words. The charm of spontaneous vehemence, the unpremeditated expression of the burning thought have dangers in the present day to which Fox and Chatham were not exposed. The fire of eloquence may find itself uncomfortably quenched by the cold damp sheet of next morning's paper. Oppressed by such considerations, the statesmen of to-day cannot allow themselves that excitement of feeling and boldness of expression in which their predecessors could indulge in safety, and to that extent their oratory suffers in effect with the audience whom they immediately address. But what their eloquence loses in intensity, it gains in dignity and weight; and if it proceeds more from the head than from the heart, it is the more valuable on that account as an instrument of government.

oratory has  
to be cir-  
cumspect :

and is  
therefore  
the better  
as an in-  
strument  
of govern-  
ment.

In fact, it removes a danger to which the English constitution is peculiarly exposed. Ever since the establishment of purely parliamentary government, that is, during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, England has been largely governed by orators. It does not follow that because a man is an orator, he is therefore a statesman. We are apt to take it for granted that they are the same thing. We can only judge men by what they show us that they know. A man may be a profound statesman, but if he does not possess the gift of expression, it is impossible for us to appreciate him. A man of second-rate ability, who gets his ideas at second-hand, if he has the gift of facile and graceful speech, may therefore possibly pose as a politician of the first rank. Still, it would seem to be a truth that nature very seldom gives a man great powers of expression unless she also gives him something great to express; and it has been our good fortune or it is due to the excellence of our institutions that this country has been rich enough in eminent public men to have room for all three classes, for those who are statesmen and

This re-  
moves the  
peculiar  
danger of  
govern-  
ment by  
Speech.

statesmen only, for those who are orators and orators only, and for those who are both.

Advantage  
of the Pen  
over the  
Tongue.

The power which oratory exercises intermittently and on occasions is exercised incessantly by the pen. All the dramatic effects, it is true, the gestures, the tones, the looks, that enhance the utterances of the orator are wanting to the daily paper. But we cannot have great speeches every day. If we did, their effect would soon be dulled. The daily paper, on the other hand, has a faculty of iteration which is denied to the orator. It works by the constant dropping which wears away the stone. Every morning the daily paper returns to the charge with deliberate persistency. Old arguments are enforced, new arguments are introduced, and the case is presented to the reader again and again, until his convictions become firmly fixed. Moreover, the daily paper reaches every man, from a duke to a dustman, who can afford to spend a penny. The Press speaks to all. It exercises a power of persuasion which permeates into every nook and cranny of the social system.

The  
governing  
power of  
the Press.

Thus the supreme power of influencing public opinion is vested in the Press. The constitutional government of the country is by the Sovereign and the Estates of the Realm; and the Estates of the Realm are three, the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal and the Commons. The three Estates compose the Parliament, and the Commons, or Third Estate, are of course by far the most important of the three. Public opinion, however, envelopes even Parliament itself; and the Press, which is the organ of public opinion, partly its director, partly its reflection, has received the popular title of the Fourth Estate. The power of the Fourth Estate is defined in no statute, is limited by no constitutional checks; but it operates in every sphere of life, in every department of the public service; it influences the passing of laws and scrutinises their operation; it is a censor of morals and a commissioner of public works; it watches over the administration of the Army and the Navy and over the public expenditure; it criticises or suggests the policy of the Ministers of the Crown; no interest is so great

Note 3.

as to be beyond its scope or so minute as to escape its attention ; it influences the self-government of the people as no official bureau can do ; it receives and presents petitions ; it gives voice to public grievances and private wrongs ; it is the last court of appeal against injustice and oppression. The ideals of government framed by the wisest of the ancient philosophers could achieve no more. Note 4.

## NOTES

1. Each of the three titles, the Sword, the Tongue, the Pen, might fairly retain the capital initial letter throughout the Essay. See Essay on "Discipline," Note 1.
2. Why so much about the eighteenth century?  
Because the eighteenth century was fertile in great orators, and they are our English Classics. What Demosthenes was to Greece, what Cicero was to Rome, that are Chatham and Fox and Burke and Sheridan and the younger Pitt to England. A few poor fragments of their eloquence remain: sufficient only, did we not know them to be inadequate and inaccurate, to excite our wonder at the contemporary effect which they produced. It is substantially correct to say that their oratory has vanished altogether; whereas you will find Mr Gladstone's speeches fully reported in the back numbers of the *Times*.
3. Notice the cumulative effect of the string of short sentences separated by semi-colons. It gives the impression, which precisely it is your aim to convey, of a single organism with a vast and orderly variety of operations.
4. The allusion is to Plato's "Republic" and Aristotle's "Politics." See Seeley's "Political Science": also Essay IX., Note 14.

## WORDS AND PHRASES

facile, a useful word borrowed from the French. "Habile" is a similar word, not yet established in our language, which would be a convenient addition to our vocabulary.

official bureau. The word "bureau," French, of course, suggests the excessive interference of the State and its officials with the details of civil conduct, characteristic of continental governments.

## COMMENT

This subject requires more power of thought, more knowledge of history, and wider observation of contemporary phenomena, than any that has preceded it. There are generalisations, too, in the second, third and fourth paragraphs, for instance, which are beyond the scope of the beginner. Still, the beginner may make good use of this Essay. Let him read it; and then try to reproduce it. He will probably succeed in assimilating some of the ideas in it, at any rate.

## PART III

### § 1. METAPHOR

THE object of the writer is to carry conviction to the mind of the reader, to arrest his attention, to place vividly before him what it is desired to express. Of all means for this purpose, Metaphor is the most potent. It can be employed in every degree of intensity or subtlety; it may be bold and striking or it may be present without conscious detection; it may be popular or recondite, obvious or abstruse. To attempt to give rules for the employment of this exuberant agent would be to attempt to bind Proteus. The highest flights of Metaphor belong to the province of Genius, and one does not aspire to teach the eagle how to use his wings. But the range of Metaphor is so wide that much of it comes within the scope of a few cautions, at any rate, for the prevention of accidents.

Metaphor is the representation of one thing by means of another. It is used, for instance, to express something unfamiliar by means of something familiar; or to give a favourable or unfavourable impression with regard to what is described; or to convey a concise description in the fewest possible words. Take, for instance, the metaphors derived from metals, which are extremely numerous and popular. A grey sky with heavy clouds and an oppressive atmosphere is described as a leaden sky. It is not made of lead; but lead is a metal with whose properties we are all familiar, and its properties are heaviness and a dull grey colour, while it is an uninteresting substance not adapted for pleasant and gracious uses. Again, you speak of a woman's yellow hair as golden. It is not made of gold; but it is of the same colour, and it is bright and beautiful, and you further imply that it is a precious ornament and a thing to be admired and taken care of. Metaphors taken from the precious metals are used enor-

mously, especially by poets, who would find it very difficult to get along without their assistance.

"The streamlet came from the mountain,  
As sang the poets of old,  
Tripping with feet of silver,  
Over the sands of gold."

And there is usually a handsome amount of silver in the description of a moon-lit or star-lit night.

Flowers are not used for metaphors so much as for similes; and they are used chiefly in poetry, where things delicate and beautiful are in their proper place.

The difference between a metaphor and a simile is, of course, that a simile is introduced by the words "like" or "as," and the writer goes out of his way to invite the reader's attention to an elaborate comparison of one thing with another. The *veluti quum* which periodically meets us in Vergil will occur at once to the Classical student.

"—sensit medios delapsus in hostes.  
Obstupuit, retroque pedem cum voce repressit.  
Improvisum aspris veluti qui sentibus anguem  
Pressit humi nitens, trepidusque repente refugit  
Attollentem iras et caerulea colla tumentem.  
Haud secus Androgeus visu tremefactus abibat."

Verg. Aen. ii. 377-382.

From the elaborate character and ostentatious prominence of these similes, it is evident that Vergil considered them to be brilliant exhibitions of poetic genius; but however leniently it may be regarded in Classical poetry, such obvious striving after effect is out of place in modern prose. In fact, Simile is a literary artifice of which only a very sparing and cautious use can be safely made; and which an inexperienced writer will do well to eschew altogether. An apt simile is difficult to find and still more difficult to work out. The analogy has an awkward trick of giving way at a critical point, and precipitating its unfortunate author into a disastrous loss of time, trouble and temper. An apt simile, on the other hand, if it is not too long or elaborate, is, like the one in the opening paragraph of the first of the Essays in this book, an effective literary device.



The difference between a metaphor and a simile is perfectly exhibited by the two following quotations from Tennyson, in the first of which the word "flower" is employed as a metaphor, while in the second it is used as a simile.

In the Dedication of the "Idylls of the King" to the memory of the Prince Consort, the poet speaks of the Prince as

"Wearing the white flower of a blameless life."

In the conclusion of "In Memoriam" occurs the verse

"And thou art worthy, full of power ;  
As gentle ; liberal-minded, great,  
Consistent ; wearing all that weight  
Of learning lightly like a flower."

It is impossible, of course, to prescribe the sources from which you should draw your metaphors. It depends upon individual knowledge. You have a far wider range than the Classical writers or even than Milton and Shakspeare. Science, astronomy, physical geography, chemistry, electricity, music, are open to you. Here a caution may be usefully interpolated. Your metaphors must not be drawn from a subject so abstruse as to be wholly unintelligible to the general reader. On the other hand, of course, they must not be utterly trite and threadbare. If, for instance, you take a metaphor from the Differential Calculus, the audience to whom you address your allusion will be distinctly limited. It is a striking proof of the popularity during recent years of the study of chemistry that metaphors from that science are freely used by modern writers. Perhaps there is no book so well worth studying in the present connection, as well as for its own sake, as Doctor Oliver Wendell Holmes' "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table." The variety and precision of its metaphors and similes constitute a remarkable manifestation of the play of fancy over solid knowledge and the illumination of erudition by graceful wit.

But from whatever source you draw your metaphors, remember, with all your mind, that they must not be mixed. A mixed metaphor would ruin the best Essay that ever was penned. Mixture of metaphor has always a peculiarly irritating

and exasperating effect, or is, in many cases, ludicrous to the last degree. The famous sentence attributed to the hapless Sir Boyle Roche has been so often quoted that it may now be fairly appropriated to point a moral in a mere work of education. "I smell a rat: I see it in the air: but I will nip it in the bud." The unfortunate gentleman got hold of three highly metaphorical phrases, combined them in one sentence, and produced the above terrible result.

But even Milton and Shakspeare are not guiltless of minor atrocities in the same direction. In Milton's description of the Lazar House occurs the following:

"Sight so deform what heart of stone could long  
Dry-ey'd behold?"

How can a heart, whether constructed of stone or any other material, have eyes?

The following famous lines in "Hamlet" have exercised the ingenuity of commentators for many generations; and though a tolerable explanation has been discovered, it does not affect the value of the illustration, because the metaphor will always *appear* to be mixed and will continue to produce the disagreeable effect of a mixture upon the mind:

"Or to take arms against a sea of troubles  
And, by opposing, end them."

How can you fight the sea with a sword? I am perfectly aware that a more or less convincing account of this metaphor has been given. But it is useless to urge that the metaphor is not really mixed but only seems so. It ought not to seem so. No writer ought to decorate his composition with metaphors that are unintelligible without foot-notes.

Metaphor can, it is clear, be used in any degree of intensity. It may be bold and arrogant; it may call attention to itself; it may almost encroach on the province of Simile; it may openly attempt to produce a striking impression. It is, however, most effective when it works in darkness; when it is subtle and insidious; when it does not instruct but only suggests; when it softly tinges thought with a hue so faint that we do not realise until afterwards that it is part of a complete scheme of colour. It is in the degree of intensity

in which, at a given moment, Metaphor is employed, that the taste and judgment of the writer will be exhibited.

Metaphor enters, in some degree, into all language. In many cases the metaphorical significance was never strongly marked; in many, it has become so familiar that it passes unnoticed. In the phrase, "The idea struck me," the metaphor is worn so threadbare that it attracts no attention. In the phrase, "The idea occurred to me," the metaphor is invisible altogether, except to the few Latin scholars who might take the trouble to remember that *occurro* means "to run up to." There is a certain danger that, in combining words whose metaphorical significance has become very faint, a mixture of metaphor may make itself perceptible; and a scholarly writer will always have a watchful eye to this possibility.

A final caution should be added. Do not overload your composition with Metaphor. Ornament is apt to degenerate into tinsel. There are times when plain straightforward writing comes as a relief to the reader from too much dancing at the heels of fancy. On this point you must be your own cool and inexorable critic.

## § 2. THE PARTICULAR FOR THE GENERAL

It is impossible to give rules for the use of Metaphor. It is only possible to give cautions against its misuse. But the substitution of the Particular for the General is merely a trick, and the trick can be explained in a few words. What use you will make of it for yourself is a different matter. A few instances will explain the artifice.

Instead of saying "From one extremity of Great Britain to another," you can say "From John o' Groat's to the Land's End." The mention of the two Capes, the one the most Northern, the other the best-known Southern extremity of the island, imparts vividness to the phrase. What it really does is to bring the map before the reader's mind, and thus display with some precision the actual measure of the distance.

"To conquer an enemy so mobile, so resolute, so quick to learn the art of war as the burghers of the Transvaal have shown themselves to be would tax to the uttermost the genius

of a Carnot or a Pitt, and the energies of a Marlborough or a Wellington."

This is far more graphic than saying "... would tax to the uttermost the genius of the greatest of war ministers and the energies of the greatest of generals." We substitute persons for phrases, definite figures for vague generalities, and the concrete is always more readily and vividly apprehended than is the abstract.

In the sixteenth century, the Classics were the only possible means of education open to women. "In looking round a well-furnished library, how many English or French books can we find which were extant when Lady Jane Grey and Queen Elizabeth received their education?"

"The sixteenth century" is a phrase of dim significance. The eye reads it. The mind, with a little effort, realises the number 1600; then the number 1500; then, down a hazy vista, catches perhaps a vague glimpse of the Reformation and the Spanish Armada looming faintly amid a cloud of other events. In fact, not everyone would realise even so much as this in the brief moment during which the eye and the brain dwell upon the words.

But the Particular has over the General the advantage which a picture or a photograph has over a written description. Directly we get the picture of Lady Jane Grey poring over her Cicero or Thucydides, or of Queen Elizabeth construing to old Roger Ascham, together with the hint of the contents of the libraries in which these meritorious young ladies spent their studious hours, the statement has acquired a convincing clearness.

"Over what tragedy could Lady Jane Grey have wept, over what comedy could she have smiled, if the ancient dramatists had not been in her library? A modern reader can make shift without Oedipus and Medea while he possesses Othello and Hamlet."

This has a vivacity and point which is lacking in the plain statement of fact: "An educated person in the sixteenth century must either read the Classics or not read at all."

Like any other literary artifice, the use of the Particular for the General must not be overdone. There is always a danger that it may degenerate into a mere vulgar display

on the writer's part of the extent of his erudition ; which is not only an error in taste but an error in the treatment of the subject. In the multiplication of allusions, he will inevitably introduce many which are so unfamiliar to his reader as to be positively unmeaning and outside the range even of conjecture. In that case he violates our fundamental canon that intelligibility is the primary aim of the writer. Directly the use of any literary artifice tends to obscure and not to elucidate the subject, we cannot resist the conclusion that it is being improperly employed. Again, the method of description by means of allusion, though vivid, is apt to become tiring. The reader's mind is called upon to leap from point to point ; and if the instances are separated from each other by wide differences of time and space or selected overmuch from the literature or the history of other countries, the exercise ceases to exhilarate and begins to fatigue. In addition, the trick will probably become apparent, and its discovery will ruin its effect.

In fact, in dealing with the artifice now under consideration, just as in dealing with metaphor, you are in the position of an architect dealing with ornament. Ornament is good, but only in its proper place, and not too much of it anywhere. You may carve the capitals of your pillars to any extent of elaboration, but you must not tamper with the straight simplicity of the shaft.

### § 3. TAUTOLOGY

In the days when there was a *Haute École* in literary style as well as in the art of horsemanship, the laws against Tautology were those of the Medes and Persians. At the present day, style is at a discount. You can hardly dismiss a writer with more contempt than by designating him a stylist. It is accepted as an axiom that when elegance of form comes into collision with perspicuity of expression, the former must give way.

Now verbal Tautology, or the unnecessary repetition of a word, is undoubtedly an extremely disagreeable minor vice. In the days before reading aloud was unfortunately discarded from general practice, the unpleasant effect of such repetition

must have been more apparent than it is at present. It annoyed the ear then: it annoys the eye now. Nay, it continues to annoy the ear; for in some subtle way the ear participates in reading, although the words are not pronounced aloud, a point which will receive consideration in some subsequent remarks on rhythm. Anyhow, verbal Tautology is a thing to be avoided whenever it is possible; and there is one case in which it must be rigidly avoided altogether.

"The French whom the emigrant prince had to govern were no more like the French of his youth, than the French of his youth were like the French of the Jacquerie."—Macaulay, "Essay on Mackintosh," p. 324.

We are heartily sick of the French by the time we get to the end of this displeasing little sentence. It is inartistic, too. The effect of the repetition in this case is to lay an irritating stress on a word on which no particular stress should properly be laid.

There are other cases, however, in which repetition is right and variation would be wrong. For instance:

"He loved pleasure, he loved ease, but he loved honour more."

Here no variation in the verb is admissible. The three notions to which the mind of the reader is directed are pleasure, ease and, in contrast with them, honour; and the effect of a variation in the verb would be to divert his attention from the three main points.

There, is, as I have said above, one kind of Tautology which must be absolutely eschewed. It occurs when a word is repeated, in proximity, of course, in a sense different from its previous use.

"The division of the party was by this time matter of common report; and the voting in the division that took place on the motion for enquiry proved the correctness of the rumour."

This is odious. The reader starts the sentence and fixes in his mind what the writer means by the word "division," and in another moment he finds the same word meaning something else. The offence is, of course, really in the nature of a bad pun.

Tautology is a term which is also applied to the repetition of the same meaning in different words. Here is a specimen taken from an actual account of Sir Robert Walpole's Administration.

"What the country wanted was rest, and a period of peaceful quiescence."

In plain English, "What the country wanted was peace."

The "repetition of the same meaning in different words" is often, however, not only admissible, but even necessary; and the above definition, which is taken from "The Student's English Dictionary," must not be pushed too hard. I allude to the case in which a statement has been made in general terms, and is then, by means of a new metaphor, it may be, reiterated in a more cogent and convincing form. It is only the strict letter of the definition that could expose such a method to suspicion and could render the reservation necessary.

#### § 4. ANTITHESIS AND ALLITERATION

Antithesis consists of balance and contrast. Contrast invariably heightens effect: white never looks so white as when it is placed in contrast with black. Antithesis is a literary device of the first order. It is artistic and legitimate; it is a conspicuous feature in the most symmetrical language of antiquity, where the particles *μέν* and *δέ* are allotted to maintain its orderly arrangement; it has always been and must always continue to be a favourite mode of expression among the most scholarly of writers and the most brilliant of orators.

Alliteration is the repetition of an initial letter or syllable. It is an expedient of no dignity; for it is artificial and obvious, and it is suggestive of stiffness and effort instead of that apparently unstudied ease which is the highest merit of a pure style. It is, in fact, a stage trick; which every one professes to despise, but of which no one declines to avail himself when it suits his purpose. When employed in an antithesis, it is often of considerable assistance in emphasising contrasted words, by introducing an element of conjecture and surprise. "*Non Angli sed Ang*"—what is

coming? A dexterous twist and the riddle is solved: "*sed Angeli.*" The snap makes the effect sharp.

The English language contains few finer examples of an antithesis than the famous sentence of Burke, "Kings will be tyrants from policy when subjects are rebels from principle"; where, it may be remarked in passing, the effect of the alliteration is undoubtedly to render the contrast between policy and principle more biting.

It was, however, only a rhetorician of the highest order who could venture upon an antithesis so ponderous as this, containing as it does no less than three notions in each scale of the balance. As a rule, we find two notions in each clause: sometimes only one. Conciseness is of the essence of Antithesis in what is intended for the eye; with the elaborate periods of a Cicero or a Gladstone, where two long and intricate clauses are balanced against each other, producing a superb impression of mastery of language upon a listening assembly, we here have no concern.

The following quotations from Pope, most of whose best-known effects were obtained by the use of Antithesis, will illustrate the serviceable employment of the device.

"What oft was thought but ne'er so well express'd."

"To err is human, to forgive divine."

"Fools rush in where angels fear to tread."

The assistance rendered by Alliteration may be illustrated by the familiar quotation from Tennyson's description of the ladies' college in "The Princess."

"With prudes for proctors, dowagers for deans,  
And sweet girl-graduates with their golden hair,"

and by a couplet from Swinburne,

"The lilies and languors of virtue  
And the roses and raptures of vice."

The free use of that species of Antithesis which contains single words or short phrases, backed on occasion by Alliteration, may be confidently recommended; but the complicated Antithesis of clauses, such as we find in Livy and in the writings of Doctor Johnson, should be left to the orators.



## § 5. OXYMORON

In the Essay on "Travelling To-day and Seventy Years ago," occurs the phrase "the chilly splendours of a palace." "Chilly splendours" is an example of what is known to grammarians as Oxymoron, a figure of speech which, on the rare occasions when it can be used, is extremely effective. Oxymoron is derived from *ὀξύς*, sharp, and *μῶρος*, foolish. The two parts of the phrase contradict each other. The attention of the reader is arrested. His mind is stimulated to solve this little puzzle: to catch the author tripping, if possible, or to reconcile the apparent discrepancy. When he finds that the phrase defies criticism, it takes a peculiar hold on his mind and often lodges in his memory. It has the same agreeable effect as that kind of wit which leaves a good deal to the reader to infer.

The best-known Classical instance is probably the "*splendide mendax*" which Horace applies to Hypermnestra. This young lady was bound by an oath to her father to kill her husband. Disregarding her obligation to her amiable parent, she saved her husband's life. As she broke her oath, she deserved the epithet "*mendax*"; but as she broke it for a noble motive, the fault deserved to be favourably qualified. "How," says the reader to himself, as he first contemplates these two antagonistic ideas, placed in ostentatious juxtaposition as though they were harmonious, "how can the same act be at once false and glorious?" Next moment, his mind perceives the solution of the apparent contradiction and catches the swift effectiveness of the artifice.

Another excellent instance is the phrase in which Sully epitomised the character of James the First. He called him "the wisest fool in Christendom." The victim of this epigram was a man of education and an author of some merit; but he was frivolous and petulant and devoid of capacity for dealing with men or with affairs. As a schoolmaster he might have been tolerable; as a king he was grotesque.

Another familiar example of Oxymoron occurs in Tennyson's

"Maud," in the description of the heroine's face, as seen for the first time with no kindly eye.

"Faultily faultless, icily regular, splendidly null,  
Dead perfection, no more."

There was absolute statuesque regularity of feature; but the variety and play of expression, the charm of mobility, for the sake of which we often forgive an upward tilt of the nose or a trifle of width in the mouth, were wanting. The lines form a ruthless description of that type of regular beauty which compels our critical faculties to admiration while it fails to appeal to our emotional susceptibilities.

It is clear that Oxymoron, from its epigrammatic character, must be very sparingly employed. It must, moreover, be very well done if it is to be done at all. It is an ostentatious literary device. It challenges attention. It must be able to defy criticism.

#### § 6. DESCRIPTION OF CHARACTER

Whenever an opportunity for giving a Character Sketch is afforded you, take it and make the most of it. Nothing is more effective in brightening up an Essay. It imparts a human element, a flavour of gossip, a touch of actual life, to the dullest composition. Let your description be crisp and terse. "He did this; he did that. He was this; he was that." Let it occupy a few lines, and constitute a single compact paragraph. The choice of epithets is everything. If possible, let your epithets be single, and unqualified by adverbs.

Among Classical writers, Sallust, among modern writers, Disraeli, were the most consummate exponents of this delightful phase of literary art. The delineations of Sulla and of Catiline, hackneyed though they are, and degraded to the ignoble use of Selections for Latin Unseen, remain unsurpassed. "*Cupidus voluptatum, sed gloriæ cupidior.*" "He loved pleasure much. But he loved honour more." You can read the passages for yourself and they need not be quoted here. Disraeli's novels are probably unknown to most of my readers, and a quotation will be serviceable. It must

be premised that the following description is taken from a novel, and, in a novel, character plays so important a part that there is no limitation of length to its description. In an Essay, on the contrary, a Character Sketch is usually incidental, and must be brief: unless, of course, the subject of the Essay itself is the character of a person. In that case you have no limitation of length. In that case, however, you must be warned to sustain your attribution of qualities by detailed facts. If you say a man was generous, you should give instances of his generosity. To proceed.

The following is the description of the late Lord Houghton, under the *alias* of Mr Vavasour.

"Mr Vavasour was a social favourite; a poet, and a real poet, and a troubadour, as well as a Member of Parliament; travelled, sweet-tempered, and good-hearted; amusing and clever. With catholic sympathies and an eclectic turn of mind, Mr Vavasour saw something good in everybody and everything, which is certainly amiable, and perhaps just, but disqualifies a man in some degree for the business of life, which requires for its conduct a certain degree of prejudice. Mr Vavasour's breakfasts were renowned. Whatever your creed, class or country—one might almost add your character—you were a welcome guest at his matutinal meal, provided you were celebrated. That qualification, however, was rigidly enforced. A real philosopher, alike from his genial disposition and from the influence of his rich and various information, Vavasour moved amid the strife, sympathising with every one; and perhaps, after all, the philanthropy which was his boast was not untinged by a dash of humour, of which rare and charming quality he possessed no inconsiderable portion. Vavasour liked to know everybody who was known, and to see everything which ought to be seen. His life was a gyration of energetic curiosity; an insatiable whirl of social celebrity. There was not a congregation of sages and philosophers in any part of Europe which he did not attend as a brother. He was present at the camp of Kalisch in his yeomanry uniform, and assisted at the festivals of Barcelona in an Andalusian jacket. He was everywhere and at everything; he had gone down in a diving-bell and gone up in a balloon. As for his acquaintances, he was welcomed in every

land ; his universal sympathies seemed omnipotent. Emperor and King, Jacobin and Carbonaro, alike cherished him. He was the steward of Polish balls, and the vindicator of Russian humanity ; he dined with Louis Philippe and gave dinners to Louis Blanc."

### § 7. CUMULATIVE EFFECT

On the whole, it may be fairly said that there can be no such thing as a truly long sentence in good modern prose. There is, however, what appears to be a long sentence ; which is in reality composed of a string of separate short sentences or of relative or adverbial clauses, purposely brigaded together in order to produce cumulative effect. An instance of the first sort will be found in the last sentence but one of Essay XII., describing the functions of the Press. An instance of the second kind is the following :—

"Gladstone could never understand Disraeli. For a man who belonged to an alien race and was untrammelled by the inconvenience of a creed ; whose mind had not been moulded by the conventional education of a Public School and a University, and who cared for Homer as little as he cared for Saint Paul ; who professed no high ideals, no philanthropic aims ; who sapped enthusiasm with a sneer and disconcerted vehemence with a gibe ; who was an adept in the use of satire and a master of caustic humour ; whose diplomacy was never hampered by his conscience or his statesmanship by a belief in human integrity ; who wrote novels, and was the unorthodox political leader of the party of political orthodoxy ; who was the personal friend of the Sovereign and the enigma of puzzled Europe, for such a man, Gladstone had only angry intolerance, exasperated amazement and unmitigated distrust."

The opening words arouse the reader's curiosity ; the swift and orderly enumeration of the points in the character of the one statesman which were unintelligible to the other produces an impression of completeness and compactness ; by the concluding words, curiosity is satisfied.

The following is an instance of a string of adverbial clauses.

The year 1759 is the most glorious in British history ; and it is the object of the writer to emphasise that fact and the association with it of the reputation of the most illustrious of British Ministers of War.

"It is a curious coincidence that the great son of the Great Commoner was born in the year when his father's reputation reached its zenith ; the year when Europe, Asia and America rang with the exploits of the British arms and the fame of the British Minister ; the year when Hawke destroyed one French fleet amid the shoals of Quiberon and Boscawen another in Lagos Bay ; when British infantry won the fierce battle of Minden for Frederick the Great ; when Johnson took Niagara, Amherst took Ticonderoga, and Wolfe died in triumph on the Heights of Abraham ; when British supremacy was established by Clive in Bengal and by Coote in the Carnatic ; when blazing beacon and pealing steeple did honour to the soldier and the sailor, but more honour still to the master-mind who guided them to victory."

As a final instance of cumulative effect and rhetorical climax, the following extract may serve. It is the conclusion of an article by the present writer which appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine* under the title of "The Real Historian."

"Let History, then, forsake her muniment-room. Let not the Palace of Westminster close her whole horizon. Let her climb to Olympian heights, from whence she may discern the whole fair landscape, the peasant at the plough, the soldier at the war, the pioneer in the primeval forest, the inventor in his laboratory, the workman at the loom ; whence she may behold the ponderous locomotive distancing the wind, the electric-lit steamship ploughing through Atlantic storm, the gun that throws its missile seven miles ; whence she may see the noble's palace standing in his park, the cloud of smoke that overhangs the coal-field, the forest of masts in Liverpool or London docks ; whence she may hear the whirr of machinery, the roar of furnaces, the hum of industrious production ; whence she may contemplate a liberty which affords an asylum to the oppressed of every nation, a charity which feeds the starving poor in the uttermost parts of the earth, a generosity which disdains to trample on a fallen foe, a large-

hearted tolerance which is slow to be provoked, a strong and fearful vengeance which never falters or fails. Let her depict the steps by which this people has become the wonder, the envy, the admiration of the world ; let her exhibit the evolution of the Anglo-Saxon character, the development of its sterling qualities ; let her do justice to its commercial, its social, its moral, no less than its legislative achievements ; let her trace the mode in which the poor province of the Norman Conqueror has become the England that we love and venerate, the England of to-day."

### § 8. RHYTHM

Sound must never be allowed to supersede sense. Nevertheless, considerations of rhythm, although their importance is but slight, cannot wholly be ignored. If two modes of expressing a meaning are equally good in point of clearness, it is proper to select the one which is best in point of sound. For considerations of sound do undoubtedly enter in some mysterious way into what we read. From the rhymes in poetry we derive some subtle pleasure although they are not pronounced aloud. In the same way the effect of rhythm makes itself insidiously perceptible in prose, especially if we read much of an author at a stretch. Taken in bulk, an unintermittent employment of extremely short sentences produces a kind of hammering effect which is irritating and distressing ; and if irritation and distress are caused by a writer's style, it is evident that the sense will also suffer.

There is, however, no necessity for the whole symphony to be staccato. A great master of literary expression will know how to modulate the powerful medium at his command and to adjust his mode of expression so as to suit what he intends to express. At one moment, his sentences may tick like a clock ; at another they may have the sonorous sweep of an Atlantic breaker. Rhythm should not, as a rule, develop into poetic metre ; although many sentences in the writings of the most musical of modern masters of prose, Mr Kinglake, would scan according to the laws of Classical verse. To enlarge upon the subject of Rhythm would be, in a work of instruc-

tion, to convey an exaggerated notion of its importance. It is a matter for the taste and discretion only of an expert and accomplished wielder of the pen to decide how far he can indulge his reader and himself in what appeals to the satisfaction of the ear. In conclusion, it must be laid down once again that style must never be obtrusive ; that it is faulty if it call attention to itself ; and that the highest merit of literary expression is reached when we find Thought shining through a clear atmosphere.

## APPENDIX

### SUBJECTS SET FOR ARMY EXAMINATIONS SINCE 1884

1. The effects of War upon National Character. 1
2. "Peace hath her victories  
No less renowned than War." ✓ 2
3. The Value of the memories of Great Men. 3
4. Can a great General be also a great Statesman?
5. The change effected by the Electric Telegraph in  
conducting the government of distant dependencies, ✓  
and how far that change is beneficial or the reverse.
6. The use and abuse of Ridicule.
7. The influence of Climate on the Amusements. 4
8. The Tongue, the Pen and the Sword as instruments 5  
of Government.
9. Cricket as a school of discipline.
10. The influence of the United States on England.
11. Duelling.
12. Sea voyages in ancient and modern times.
13. Picture England suddenly deprived of the services of  
steam, electricity and gas.
14. A day at Henley Regatta.
15. The Nineteenth Century—a retrospect. 6
16. Courtesy.
17. England's Work in Egypt.
18. The Englishman abroad and the Foreigner in  
England.
19. "Trade follows the Flag."
20. "History is the Biography of Great Men." x 7
21. The Federation of the British Empire, (from a military 8  
point of view. )
22. Safeguards against an invasion of England.
23. A cruise in the Mediterranean.



24. Causes of desertion from the Army.
- 1 1 25. Discuss the following statement: "The spread of Education is the spread of Discontent."
26. Different kinds of Friendship.
27. How far are sham fights and manœuvres a test of Military or Naval strength?
- 10 28. "Si vis pacem, para bellum" (also set November 1895).
29. Discuss the life and work of any great historian.
30. What does a country gain or lose by being thickly populated?
31. Obedience as a training for command.
- 11 32. Reasons for the gradual disappearance, in modern times, of Small States.
33. "Mens sana in corpore sano."
- 12 34. "The art of gaining power and that of using it well are too often found in different persons."
35. A week at Wimbledon Camp.
36. Is personal gallantry as important in modern as in ancient warfare?
37. The increasing humaneness of the laws of war.
38. Turkey, past and present.
39. Goldsmith, Macaulay and De Quincy as models of a literary style.
40. Habit, a Second Nature.
41. Military Music.
42. Don Quixote.
43. *Esprit de Corps*.
44. The causes and effects of the rapid extinction of Big Game.
45. What do you understand by the word Civilisation?
46. The Relations between Officers and Private Soldiers.
47. English and American Humour.
48. "He that always blames or always praises his country, is no patriot."
49. The influence of fashion.
50. Travelling to-day and sixty years ago.
51. "Revenge and wrong bring forth their kind."
52. The position of an officer in the French, German and English Armies respectively.
53. The Queen's residences.

54. The advantages of an accurate eye.
55. The future of Africa.
56. England's interests in the Mediterranean.
57. What in your opinion constitutes a good Tale of Adventure?
58. The Ideal Soldier.
59. The Alps.
60. School Magazines: their merits and defects.
61. The requirements of England for National Defence.
62. Oxford *versus* Cambridge.
63. The use and abuse of Strikes.
64. Tennyson and Browning as Dramatists.
65. "What can they know of England who only England know?"
66. The power of public opinion.
67. Faces in a crowd.
68. The qualities which are most necessary in the Head Boy of a Public School.
69. "Duty for duty's sake." Unfold the meaning of this maxim, illustrating it by the lives of eminent Englishmen.
70. The pleasures of school-life are not likely to recur in later years.
71. Explorers, ancient and modern.
72. The pleasures and drawbacks of foreign service.
73. England and the United States, their resemblances and differences.
74. The discipline of the Public School compared with the discipline of the Army.
75. "Men show their character by the things they laugh at."
76. The strategy and tactics of the two Commanders at the battle of Waterloo.
77. The special difficulties of the English government of India.
78. The Soldier in Shakspeare.
79. Picture India deprived of English Rule.
80. The parts played in education by study and games respectively.
81. Write a letter to a friend, who believes that certain people are lucky and others unlucky, arguing against his view. Write also his reply.

82. At what age would you choose to travel, and why?
83. The relative advantages of Health, Wealth and Wisdom.
84. Write a letter to a friend, who thinks that the British } Empire is expanding too rapidly, endeavouring to allay his fears. Write also his reply.
85. Has commercial enterprise done more to promote peace or to promote war between nations?
86. The inconveniences of greatness.
87. Write a letter to a friend who has said that a military career is likely to blunt the feelings, and maintain the opposite point of view. Write also his reply.
88. To what extent is exaggeration justifiable in journalism?
89. "Blood is thicker than water."
90. Write a letter to a friend contending that the abilities necessary to produce a great statesman are no greater than those needed for a successful general. Write also his reply, taking the opposite point of view.
91. Queen Victoria's reign.
92. Are Polar Expeditions worth the hardship and sacrifice involved?
93. The advantages and disadvantages that would follow the adoption of a universal language.
94. "Courage is the highest of virtues, because it is that one which makes all other virtues possible." Discuss this statement.
95. Write a letter to a friend contending that a war is likely to produce less suffering nowadays than at the beginning of the century. Write his reply, taking the opposite view.



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